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THE GOVERNMENT AND THE TAXPAYERS.

THERE never was a people that loved to be taxed, or that did not look upon taxation as a necessary evil—a thing essentially disagreeable and unwelcome, but to be endured nevertheless, because there was no help for it. In like manner there never was a Government, whether despotic or constitutional—unless it were an autocracy, of which the autocrat for the time being was a lunatic—that did not take care to make the inevitable burthen as little onerous as possible, and that did not prefer the indirect to the direct form of raising money from the people. All wise Governments have reserved, for war purposes and for extremities of national peril, such inquisitorial and offensive forms of taxation as the Poll Tax of ancient and the Income and Property Tax of modern times. It was felt to be safer, as well as more agreeable, both to the giver and the receiver, to tax people in their luxuries—in their wines, their beer, their spirits, their tobacco, their carriages, their horses, their hounds, and generally in their superfluities of every kind—than to send the tax-gatherer from house to house to make a direct demand for money.

Were it not for the Excise and Customs Duties that are levied in this country, and that produce so many millions in a manner so little oppressive, and which we can only evade by ceasing to consume the luxury thus enhanced in price, the amount of our taxation might threaten even the stability of our Constitution ; for what Government could withstand the disaffection certain to be created by a demand for seventy millions per annum in direct cash payments—drained from the incomes and earnings of all classes, both rich and poor ? When the late Sir Robert Peel timidly and experimentally introduced the Income and Property Tax in a time of peace, and in aid of a great commercial reform, he felt himself compelled to apologize for the dangerous innovation. He expressly promised on his own behalf, and on that of his successors, that it should be a temporary, not a permanent, source of revenue ; and urgently entreated all who were likely to be aggrieved by its pressure, to tolerate it for a time, for the sake of the great social and economic reforms, of which he proposed to make it the instrument. His arguments prevailed, and all his calculations proved themselves to be well founded—except one. The Income and Property Tax became permanent. All hope of its abandonment speedily died away ; and there is now no statesman of either party who dreams of ever being able to go to Parliament with a project or its abolition.

But this inevitable tax is essentially so unpopular—and in much of its incidence so oppressive—that the duty of a Government and of a Legislature which know that they cannot repeal it, is to make it so just and equitable, that those who are compelled to pay it may acquiesce in the burden with as much cheerfulness as they can. The pill has to be swallowed ; but there is no necessity for its being made offensively nauseous. Yet every Administration that has been in office for the last fifteen years—including that of Sir Robert Peel, which first strapped the weight on the national shoulders—has systematically refused to accede to the demand raised by the professional and trading classes, to reconsider their case, with the view of making a distinction between precarious income and realized property.

The doctrinaires of finance, strong in their dogma, assert that income is income, come whence it will. They will listen to no modification. They insist that the man who receives five hundred a year from funded property, or from the rents of his lands and houses—

income that pours into his purse in sickness as in health—ought to be exactly the same in the eyes of the tax-gatherer, as the man who derives five hundred per annum from the exercise of a profession dependent, not only on his life, but on his mental or bodily health. In vain the trader and professional man urge that the income which exists to-day may vanish into nothingness to-morrow, never again to be recovered. The financiers remain obdurate. All the arguments *pro* and *con* have been stated a thousand times. On the side of the financiers there has been abundance of close reasoning and hard-hearted logic, hardly very convincing to men of mathematical minds, and utterly unsatisfactory to the classes aggrieved by the impost ; while on the other side there have been appeals to that instinctive sense of right and wrong, which is often superior to mere reason, and far more powerful in the government of the multitude. But nothing has been done. The Government, when hard pressed, has acknowledged the evil, but has taken refuge in the general statement, that it could only remedy one injustice by the infliction of a greater ; and that, all things considered, it was better to leave the tax as it stood, than to attempt a remedy.

The excuse was an immoral one ; and as an immoral Government tends to make an immoral people, we are not surprised that large numbers of the struggling traders and professional men, who find themselves under the screw and the inquisition of Schedule D, should attempt to defraud a Government which they think defrauds them. Under no other circumstances can any valid explanation be found for the extraordinary disclosures that are made whenever Parliament orders a return of the number of persons charged to the tax, and the amount of income on which they pay. In fact, it is impossible to study these returns without coming to the conclusion that vast numbers of the British people systematically and pertinaciously conceal the amount of their incomes, and think it no shame to evade, as far as they can, a tax which, from bitter experience, they feel to be oppressive, and which they have convinced themselves to be unjust.

A return of the kind which was issued last week discloses the fact, that in Great Britain and Ireland the number of persons paying upon incomes ranging between £100 and £150 per annum in the financial year of 1859-60 was but 128,570. Is it possible to believe that there was no fraud or evasion here ? The same returns show only 41,687 persons possessing incomes between £150 and £200 ; only 36,535 with from £200 to £300 ; only 16,608 ranging between £300 and £400 ; and only 8,130 with incomes between £400 and £500. Grouping all these together, the result is that in all the British Isles there are less than a quarter of a million, in fact only 231,530 persons, of the trading and professional classes, earning incomes between £100 and £500 per annum. The number is less than half the population of Marylebone parish. Can this be true ? And if it be untrue, does not the blame in the first instance rest with the Government, which, by injustice, combined with callous disregard of remonstrance, has compelled the people to take the law of redress into their own hands, to meet wrong with wrong, and injury with injury ?

A still more singular result appears when investigation is made into the numbers of those who pay upon higher incomes. Five hundred per annum in a country like this, where such painful struggles are made to "keep up appearances," is scarcely a remove beyond decent poverty, among educated men with large families ; but among men with £1,000 a-year, we might surely expect a little more fair-



ness and openness of dealing, if it were for no other reason than their not being under the same pecuniary pressure as their less fortunate fellow-workers. But, if we may trust the returns, it appears that there are only 901 persons amongst us with incomes between £900 and £1,000 per annum; while in the whole island there are not 5,000 with an income of £2,000 a year derived from any trade or profession. The Parliamentary Return shows us these figures; but are they credible or creditable? But whatever opinion may be formed of these facts, and of the state of public morality which they proclaim, it is probable that the acquiescence of Parliament in a modification of the Income and Property Tax to the extent of allowing a difference in the taxable nature of precarious income as compared with that derivable from realized property, would at once reconcile the professional and trading classes to the impost which at present they condemn, and put an end to the dishonesty which the Parliamentary Returns make manifest.

All moral duties are mutual. If the people owe a duty to the Government, the Government owes a duty to the people; and while upon the subject of taxation, we may fairly ask whether the Government does not overpass the line of duty when it issues instructions for a more than usually stringent collection of outstanding liabilities, in order to bring within the revenue of the year, sums that without such stringency would, in the ordinary course of affairs, have to be carried to the account of the year ensuing? It appears that instructions have recently been promulgated from Somerset House to collect immediately all the taxes, on which a margin of time has hitherto been allowed, and that these orders have been so strict as in more than one instance to have led to the resignation of the collectors. When it is considered that the deficient harvest of last year very seriously interfered with all branches of trade, and that the deplorable civil war in America has aggravated all the evil effects of unfavourable seasons, the determination of the Government to "screw" the people becomes all the more reprehensible.

Mr. Gladstone may or may not be a great financier; but it is somewhat too bad that unnecessary hardship should be inflicted upon the trading community to produce a factitious revenue within the year, for no other purpose than to justify the calculations of his somewhat imaginative Budget. There is an old saying about the uselessness of robbing Peter to pay Paul; but we would ask the Government of what use it is to force revenue into the accounts of this year, that, under ordinary circumstances, would belong to the next? While nothing is gained by such hocus-pocus, the positive mischief is done of rendering honest and hard-working people discontented with the Government. Surely in this case "le jeu ne vaut pas la chandelle?"

#### RENEWAL OF HOSTILITIES IN NEW ZEALAND.

FOR some time past the intelligence from New Zealand has been of a character to excite apprehension of an immediate renewal of hostilities between the settlers and the natives. The last news seems to justify the worst fears of all who wish well to the colony; or who look with commiseration upon the inevitable fate of the brave aborigines. It is no doubt lamentable that the two races cannot live together in peace. But as it is not the civilized but the uncivilized man that has recommenced the struggle for mastery, the best thing that the colonists of New Zealand, supported by the Government at home, can do, is to go to war in earnest, and make it so "short, sharp, and decisive," as to teach the natives, once for all, that their project of a native sovereignty is an idle dream; and that, if need be, the whole might of England will be put forth to punish the attempts of all who strive to convert it into a reality. In a war of races, where the one is superior and bound to conquer, and the other inferior and bound to submit, it is alike the interest, the duty, and the most merciful policy of the stronger party to do its work effectually. Revolutions, as we are told, are not made with rose-water; neither can the European settlers in a country of savages hold possession by fair words. There is no security in palaver. The strong will and the strong arm are the two things needful; and it is high time for the government of New Zealand to display both.

Wirimu Kingi, the native chieftain who claims to be king of the Maoris, and whose object seems to be to clear the island of the settlers, or reduce them to subjection, is evidently a person of no common mark. He inspires all the inferior chiefs who come in contact with him with confidence, and daily receives adhesions to his cause. He has established four regular mails, that start from his head-quarters to the four corners of the island, each of which receives a subsidy of £30 a year, besides 6d. a letter. "One," says the *Wellington Advertiser*, "comes down the Wanganni, another down the Rangitiki, a third goes to the Ahurn, and a fourth northwards, towards the Bay of Plenty." By these means he keeps up a constant communication with the disaffected, and has organized a movement so formidable, and so likely to lead to worse, that it must be stopped at any cost.

The Governor seems to be fully aware of the peril that will attend any half measures, and has issued a proclamation to the chiefs and people assembled at Ngaruauhia, in which he expresses his sorrow

and displeasure at what has been done in the name, and on behalf, of the native king—acts that are utterly inconsistent with the authority of the Queen of Great Britain, and which he has been commanded, and is determined, not to tolerate. He specifically demands submission, without reserve, to the Queen's sovereignty, and to the authority of the law; restoration of all the plunder taken by the natives from her Majesty's European or native subjects; and compensation for damage or injury inflicted by the rebels, in cases where mere restitution is impossible.

It is not likely that Wirimu Kingi, having gone so far, will be frightened by a proclamation however emphatic and explicit; and we may therefore expect to hear by the next mail that the Queen's troops are in the field in sufficient force to make an end of the rebellion. We trust, moreover, that however strong they may be they will be efficiently supported by the settlers. New Zealand is full of such promise of future wealth and power that the colonists owe it to their own dignity, as well as to their own safety, not to rely entirely upon the extraneous aid of the Mother Country. It will be well for them if they look upon the imperial troops as their allies rather than as their principals in this struggle. Above all, we trust they will remember that there must be no rose-water in this business; nothing, in fact, but a stern determination to justify by deeds the words of the Governor, and dissipate, once and for ever, the notion of the Maoris, that a native sovereignty is either desirable or possible.

If the natives have grievances, as no doubt they have, and many of them perhaps but too well founded, it will be time enough to discuss them when they have submitted to the Queen's supremacy. Until that time they are not even entitled to a hearing. After their submission the public opinion of the colony, as well as the stronger public opinion, will see that justice is done them. In some respects their case is a hard one, and is entitled to the sympathy of all right-minded men; but the law which compels their submission is inexorable. It is the law of fate and necessity. They must either submit to the white settlers, amalgamate with them, or die or be driven out. There is no other alternative before them. The sooner they are made to see it the better for them, as well as for the Europeans who have come amongst them, to raise their country from barbarism into civilization, and to build up in that temperate clime a new and powerful empire.

#### EUROPEAN DANGERS.

IS Europe to live for ever in hot water? Are there to be for ever new plots at the Tuilleries; fresh schemes for the reconstruction of states, with a handsome profit to France for the trouble of the operation; new and deeply laid conspiracies against the integrity, the liberty, and the independence of nations. The thing is really becoming intolerable; a nuisance that cannot be much longer endured. There is not a government in Europe which is not made to spend its days in the very uncomfortable feeling that a convict or a brigand has broken loose from his confinement, and everybody is expecting to hear of a burglary or a highway robbery each morning. The present generation, we fear, has lost the memory of the terror which the all-swallowing annexations of the first French empire spread over the world, and of the fierce hatred of Bonaparte which pervaded every class of English society. Such a state of feeling would seem to us unnatural now; indeed, almost monstrous. Yet the same evil work is going on under a different form; and the same lamentable consequences, by a well-known law of history, will very probably recur. The uncertainty and anxiety of such a condition of European society are unendurable; they are positively more mischievous than open war; for war, at any rate, soon comes to a determinate end; whilst the present apprehension has no assured limit. Every week brings fresh tidings from France of the injury inflicted on her trade by the general sense of insecurity; but the harm is far from being confined to her. Merchants are perplexed everywhere; the happy progress and useful reforms of peace are arrested by the anxieties of an uncertain future, and the wasteful expenditure of unprofitable armaments. Revolutionists and malcontents of every kind are encouraged in every country into pestilential activity; populations are turned aside from the healthy developments of industry by incessant expectation of great political change. In our insular position, and with our tried political solidity, we are far less exposed than the people of the continent to the harassing vexation of this nuisance; and it is, therefore, difficult to us to conceive the discomfort, uneasiness, and even fear, which the movements of the Tuilleries produce abroad. We little understand how men on the continent are living only for the day.

Even while to the ordinary observer things appear tranquil there are signs of a secret fermentation which is going on at Paris, and the character and causes of it are not wholly unknown to us. The *Manchester Guardian* stands amongst the highest of the provincial journals of England; and every one who has followed the communications of its Paris correspondent must have been struck with the great extent of its information, and, still more, by its wonderful accuracy. Many events, which have subsequently agitated Europe and exercised

the deliberations of Parliament, were distinctly foretold by the French correspondent of the *Manchester Guardian*, long before they were known to any London journalists but ourselves. When we appeal to it, therefore, we know that we are relying on no common testimony; we speak with the certainty that we are informed by one who must have peculiar access to the intrigues of the Tuilleries, and whose disclosures are confirmed by their innate probability under the actual circumstances of the Emperor of the French.

"Excessive vexation," it seems, "prevails at Paris at the impossibility of hoodwinking or taking in our Ministry in England." The repeated and spirited declarations of Lord Palmerston in Parliament; and, still more, the emphatic announcement of Lord John Russell on Mr. Kinglake's motion, have both alarmed and embittered the French court. Despairing of the English Government, and sorely pressed by his thickening dangers, the Emperor Napoleon has only hardened himself, as is the wont of desperate offenders, and has enlarged his aims and doubled his stakes. The *Revue Contemporaine*—a journal under direct official control—has replied to Lord John Russell with the taunt, that as soon as war begins, Sardinia will be French, whatever the English may choose to say: thus letting out the distant expectation of war entertained by the Emperor, and the assurance felt at Paris that Sardinia is settled.

Nor is this all. The darling ambition which has ever been so dear to French rulers, which fascinated Louis le Grand to his ruin, and was pursued with so much tenacity, through treachery, perfidy, bloodshed, and disaster, by the first Napoleon, is still brooding in the Tuilleries. Spain, we are told by the *Manchester Guardian*, is to be bribed into vassalage to France by the recovery of Gibraltar; her present Prime Minister, General O'Donnell, is to be got rid of, and General Prim, his designed successor, has been invited to Vichy, to be plied with every allurement that could act on a vain, ambitious, and courageous nature. Some say that still vaster designs are contemplated; that the dominion of Isabella is to be extended to the Western Ocean, and thus, as in the days of Philip II., to unite Portugal to the Spanish sceptre; whilst the Balearic Islands, with the fine harbour of Port Mahon, and the Pyrenean slopes down to the Ebro, are to reward the magnanimous ally who is to confer these benefits on Spain. The theory of limits has, it appears, undergone marked modifications at Paris; and has shown remarkable plasticity in accommodating itself to the thoughts of great minds. Mountain-crests have become discredited as frontiers; great rivers are held to be mere impassable barriers. Now the Alps can no longer adequately guard France; and to procure safety for her territory, Piedmont, Turin and all, is to be annexed to the Grand Empire.

Do such predictions appear too extravagant? Surely, what has been may be again. Let a man think of what France was in 1790 and what she was in 1811, and then let him say, if he can, that these projects are impossible of realisation. No announcement of their success could in our day surpass the astonishment of Europe at the aggrandisement of Napoleon I. The danger is not got rid of by deriding it as incredible. We must ever recollect that Napoleon is pushed on by a force from behind which is irresistible. His dynasty is not safe, and he knows it. It is notorious that the French army returned from the campaign of Italy with strong feelings of dissatisfaction at the sudden halt before the Quadrilateral, whilst the professed object of the war was unattained; and the annexation of Savoy had the soothing of French soldiers for one of its main causes. French policy has failed in Syria, and has been baffled in Italy. The religious sentiment of the nation has been wounded by the treatment of the Pope, and all French historians concur in asserting that nothing so much weakened the great Napoleon as the hostility of the Catholics. Again France is isolated abroad, and every effort must be made to hide the dangerous fact from French eyes. The peasantry, we learn, are growing disaffected; they are burdened with ever-increasing local taxes, their hatred of the conscription is intense, and they are incited by an angry priesthood. A throne which rests on no permanent interest, no solid support of a single great class of society, is compelled to seek the prestige of a brilliant and successful foreign policy. The darling vice of France thus becomes her own punishment, for the house of Bonaparte is ever driven to court popularity by pandering to the disastrous passion for territorial aggrandisement.

As we have already said, this nuisance will soon become intolerable and must be abated. The prosperity of English trade, not to say the safety of the English dominions, is daily threatened by the existence of such a hotbed of machinations in the most military state of the world. It is clearly the duty of the English press to protect the interests of their country, and on such an occasion to speak plainly, for forbearance has its limits. England is most sincerely desirous to see France prosper; she grudges her no triumph of peaceful industry, of wealth, or of civilization. This is indisputably the genuine feeling of Englishmen. But, if the French Empire is bent on unceasingly re-modelling the map of Europe, if it is ever plotting to alter the territorial limits of nations, and unsparingly applying the pressure of the threat of French arms to the fulfilment of its designs, it may give birth and vitality to an idea which may produce infinite consequences in the future. It may compel Europe, in self-defence,

sternly to sweep away the delusion which always broods over the imaginations of French projectors, the assumption that the limits of states can be altered only in one direction, and that France, like Rome, knows only of an *expanding* frontier. It may teach Europe to pronounce the terrible word, dismemberment, and, if need be, to fulfil it. Let not Imperial France scoff in derision at the thought as preposterous; let it not fondly believe that Frenchmen will never submit to such an indignity. There are many living who can remember the indignant warnings heaped on the Allies not to touch the sacred territory, that France would rise as one man to repel invasion; yet the conquering hosts crossed the Pyrenees and the Rhine, and France was passive, because helpless, at the sight. The French eagles spread their wings from Lisbon to the Vistula, yet the victorious band of Europe encamped triumphant in Paris.

Dismemberment was then mooted, and within an ace of accomplishment; the magnanimity of Wellington alone preserved her ancient limits to France. He wished for a strong France, because he believed in a peaceful France under a peaceful dynasty. It is for Napoleon to beware of convincing Europe that she can never have rest, calm progress, national self-development, and peace, except with a weak France. England desires no war; she is by principle averse to war, if it can be averted with dignity and safety; but we can tell France that England is also a warlike nation, and that her longsuffering can have an end. The fundamental feeling of the English people towards foreign states is respect for their individuality and their independence; and they have become enlightened enough to feel hearty wishes for the prosperity of others, knowing that it is sure to react on their own. This is the root of the English policy of non-intervention, a policy which is the only safeguard of the political, moral, and social development of the world. Our ancestors led Europe in overthrowing the aspiring hopes of Louis XIV. Our fathers sustained the spirit and the energy of the alliance which emancipated mankind from a dominion that was the child of martial valour and military genius. We, their sons, the court of the Tuilleries may be well assured, inherit their courage and their policy; and we will never suffer the welfare and progress of the human race to become the sport of the restless intrigues of an unnatural and unrooted dynasty in a single people.

#### THE SINEWS OF WAR IN AMERICA.

IT does not appear that the President and generals of the Southern Confederation were aware of the completeness of the victory which they won at the battle of Manassas. Had they pursued the panic-stricken fugitives to the banks of the Potomac, Washington, on the 22nd ultimo, would have been wholly at their mercy. For ten days after the "stampede," there was nothing to prevent President Davis from entering the capital as a conqueror. Whether it were from ignorance or from design that he did not follow up his advantage, we are not yet informed, and probably shall never know; but in either case the result was fortunate, and of good augury for peace. A defeat may be borne, and a disgraceful panic may be palliated; but the infliction of a too flagrant humiliation is apt to rouse the blood even of cowards, and, in the minds of brave men, to supersede reason and calculation, by the frenzy of revenge.

The true place of President Davis—if no object but the independence of the Seceded States inspire his actions—is upon his own soil, amid his own people. Ten thousand men in Virginia are worth a hundred thousand in the district of Columbia, unless he can, by a bold *coup de main* and the possession of the capital, dictate a peace that is likely to be permanent. For such an achievement he missed the opportunity; and to attempt it now would be to incur a heavier risk than one so prudent, and hitherto so successful, is likely to encounter.

The North, on the other hand, does not seem to take its defeat very much to heart. If it had made up its mind to wipe out the stigma on its arms by renewed exertions, we might augur less unfavourably than we do of its final chances of success. But when the world is told in every American and English newspaper, and when private letters confirm the disgraceful fact, that the officers of the Federal army—fellows who did not fight but run at Manassas—talk complacently of the "tarnation whipping" that they received; when their men think it no shame to have retreated without a cause and against orders, and speak of the whole matter as a joke; when privates who had only enlisted for three months declined to serve for a single day beyond the term, though on that particular day the need of their country was the sorest; and when, worst of all, these sham soldiers are received and feted in the cities of the North, as if they were victors rather than runaways, we cannot believe that the North is in earnest in this war. It would seem as if the Southern generals had only to remain entrenched amid their own fastnesses, to weary out the fitful and flagging enthusiasm of the Unionists, put an end to hostilities, and secure the independence of the Confederation. Neither civil nor foreign war can be carried to a triumphant issue by men who will not incur personal sacrifices, or who laugh at their own disgraces.

There are two other reasons to strengthen the belief that if the South continue to exhibit the wisdom and perseverance that have

hitherto marked its councils, the war will not outlive the present year. These are the extreme difficulty of raising by taxation from the Northern and Western people the large amount of funds necessary for the vigorous prosecution of the war, and the impossibility of procuring the money by a loan to be taken up in England. After the loud talk about the 500 millions of dollars, or 100 millions sterling, to be raised by loan and taxes, of which the world has heard so much since President Lincoln issued his famous war-message, we find that only 20 millions of dollars, or 4 millions sterling, are to be raised by direct taxation from the pockets of the people. This sum is to be apportioned among all the States (the eleven seceding States included), in proportion to their population, and is to be raised, if it can be collected (which we very much doubt), by an annual tax on pleasure carriages of a dollar, or a dollar and a half according to size or description; of a dollar on a gold watch, and of half a dollar on a silver one; by a duty of 5 cents per gallon on spirits, and of 2 cents per gallon on beer and other fermented liquors; of 15 cents per lb. on tea, 4 cents on coffee, 2 cents on sugar; and by an Income and Property Tax of three per cent. on all incomes of and exceeding 800 dollars (£160) per annum.

The Anglo-Saxon races in all parts of the world are well known for what Lord Castlereagh called their "ignorant impatience of taxation," and are not likely to submit without a struggle at evasion to burdens so new and so unpopular as direct personal imposts like these, especially in the Far West, where there is a large German population to aid them in resistance, among whom the war has still fewer adherents than among men of English, Scottish, and Irish descent. And this feeling, taken in conjunction with the singular levity, almost approaching to the ridiculous, which has been displayed by the Northern combatants, does not impress the public of this country with a strong conviction that the money will be raised. Nor will the singularly ill-timed and stupid desire expressed in Congress to aggravate still further the already sufficiently aggravating Morrill tariff, add much to the resources of the Government at Washington. It will throw additional impediments in the way of the already diminished trade between Great Britain and New York; and it will tax in another form all the American consumers of cotton and woollen goods, and hardware, to the sole advantage of Northern manufacturers, such as Governor Sprague of Rhode Island; but it will not add in any perceptible degree to the warlike resources of the Republic. The South may originally have been "mad" to secede, but the North seems to be permanently and hopelessly mad in forcing its protectionist tariff on the country at such a time as the present, to the advantage of no one but a few wealthy mill-owners, to the disadvantage of all the rest of the community, and to the inevitable alienation of all British sympathy.

As for the proposed loan, we need scarcely say that the attempt to introduce it into the London market has proved a failure. Mr. A. Belmont, the New York agent of the house of Rothschild, has finally taken his departure, convinced of the hopelessness of persuading the English public to lend themselves to the speculation. It is universally felt in this country, that if the Northerners mean to conquer in the unhappy strife, they must conquer by their own energies, and their own money. The Federal Government can offer no valid security; and the English public are well aware that neither Messrs. Rothschild nor any other firm, however eminent, can or will give security for the payment, punctual or unpunctual, of the interest. The bonds of more than one of the Northern States are not worth more in the markets of the world than the paper on which they are printed; and were the war even more popular in the North than it is, repayment would be as problematical after the success as it would be after the failure of the Federal arms. If the South establish its independence, as seems inevitable, what would be the value of stock in a Federal loan? If the North conquer the South, and have to maintain a standing army to keep it in subjection, what will then be the value? Probably about the same in either case; 50 per cent. below par, or lower even than that.

The Americans do not wish Great Britain to interfere in the quarrel, or even to offer their advice; and they ought, if consistent, to scorn to borrow the money of an Englishman to carry out a feud which they assert to be a purely domestic one, with which Europeans have no concern. We know that the multitudes of Englishmen who have small sums of money to invest, do not look altogether at the morality of their investments, or consider too closely whether the war to which they furnish the sinews is just or unjust. On the contrary, we are fully aware that they look to high interest for their money and to that alone. We tell these people emphatically that any Englishman will deserve to lose every farthing of his investment, if he lend it either to the North or the South in this struggle. Our Government has wisely resolved to keep itself out of the *melée*, if the unreasonable North will not force us into strife by inventing grounds of offence and quarrel. And our people will do well to imitate the example, and not invest a guinea on either side. British trade suffers more than enough between the belligerents; and it would be silly indeed if those who are not traders should imperil their money by investing it in a cause with which they have no concern.

#### AUSTRIA AND CROATIA, AND THE CRY OF "DIVIDE ET IMPERA."

NOTHING misleads more in politics than the continuous repetition of a "cry." By the time it begins to be very popular it has probably lost all its original and true meaning. We are bound to say that the cry of "Divide et impera," so perpetually brought as an accusation against Austria's policy, seems to us to enter into the category of wrongly applied and used-up "cries." That it entered into Prince Metternich's "system" to keep the several races in Hungary apart, and not to allow them to coalesce, may or may not be true; but this much should also be borne in mind, namely, that it would have taken the ability and patience of many Metternichs to have arrived at the contrary result. Separation between these different tribes, disunion, hatred of the governing by the governed—this has, time out of mind, been as a law of nature to all the component parts of the so-called kingdom of Hungary. To produce anything like sympathy or oneness between all these people would have been an impossible achievement; therefore it is just conceivable that M. de Metternich may, perhaps, have been deterred by the enormous difficulty of the task, and may simply have taken things as he found them, and only made the best of them. He certainly found them "divided," and sought to deduce "empire" from their divisions as best he might—that is probably the fair way of stating the case.

Whatever may have taken place, however, in former reigns, no one in his senses can accuse Francis Joseph of having attempted to "divide in order to rule." He was actually called to the throne because of the spontaneous outbreak of antipathy, which had occurred between the populations on the other bank of the Leitha, and he might have in some respects a firmer seat upon it if he had decided to favour one race at the expense of the other. Three races and three religions are at war in the kingdom of Hungary—the Magyars, Slavonians, and Saxons; \* and the Protestants, Catholics, and Greeks. Had the Imperial Government awarded the utmost amount of its favour to either the Magyars or the Slavonians, there is no doubt that its position would be, at the present moment, a much stronger one materially, but that is precisely what it never did. We will take, first, the instance of 1848-9.

When the February Revolution in Paris had sent forth the spark that was to fire the dormant powder everywhere, the peculiar form of disturbance in Hungary was that of the indignant rising of the Slavonian races against their rulers, the Magyars. They declared themselves unbearably oppressed, and impartial witnesses say they really were so. They had power to throw off the yoke, and they appealed to the crown—to the "common sovereign of all," as they said—to the Emperor! They petitioned to be governed directly instead of indirectly, and swore they would no longer submit to Magyar tyranny.

The Emperor yielded, and hence the whole explosion of '48, ending in civil war, in the re-conquest of Hungary by the Imperials, and in the accession to power of the present Emperor. As the whole complication originated with the Slavonians, or with what are properly termed the South Slavonians, so it became the work of the Slavonians to be true to themselves and to the crown, and to fight it out with the Magyars. And most true they were, and manfully they did fight it out with their enemies.

Then, too, the Slavonian tribes had the immense advantage of possessing pre-eminently the "right man in the right place,"—the one man, the hero,—they had Jellachich. If ever Providence marked out a man to lead a nation, to be the idol of a race and of a time, to fulfil all the conditions that attach to the name of hero, in its highest and most poetical sense, that man was uncontestedly Jellachich, the Croatian Ban. Jellachich saved the empire in 1848. All Radetzky's talent and experience, all his weight, and all his good luck, would have been unavailing without Jellachich. The Ban—at the head, it may be said, of a whole land—marched up to Vienna, marched into Vienna, extinguished revolt, put heart into all Austria, laid his success at his sovereign's feet, without one single ambitious thought, and—had his plans not been set at nought by routine-generals—would have closed the Hungarian insurrection in six weeks. The civil war ensued, because Jellachich was not permitted to crush at once what at first was a mere outbreak. Hence the bitter, implacable hatred of the Magyars for the great Croatian chief. They know how he held them at his mercy.

Now, after this, had the Vienna Government leaned upon the Slavonic populations, had it caressed and favoured them, there would have been, literally, no trace of a "Hungarian question" at this hour. But this was just what it did *not* do. Not a year after the Slavonians had, by the hand of Jellachich, restored dominion to the House of Hapsburgh, centralization, under the gaunt form of the iron-willed Felix Schwartzenberg, crushed all "sentiment," and the victorious soldier-people of South Slavonia found they were to be no more favoured than the hated Asiatic, the Magyar, whom they had vanquished. *Gleichberechtigung!* the "equal rights of all races"—that was the then watchword. With that word Francis Joseph had come

\* There are others, such as Roumans, Széklerstein, but these are subdivisions of the three chief ones.

to the throne, with that word he was to reign, and with that word Prince Schwartzenberg was resolved to govern. A great statesman had the upper hand of a great nation, a system put down a sentiment. Jellachich retired to Agram, and died, the Croatians treasured up what they felt as a wrong, and the principle of "equal rights" was established.

After all, this was strictly justice—it was hard, unfeeling, unlovable justice. It was, we believe, a grievous mistake, but it was not the application of the cry of "Divide et Impera!"

The same thing is happening again now. If the Vienna government would resolutely award to the Magyars the absolute right to govern or misgovern the populations of the *partes adnexae* as they choose, the Diet of Pesth would probably very soon make more important concessions than is supposed; and if, on the contrary, the Croatians were humoured in all their demands, the Diet of Agram would be the humble servant of the Reichsrath. That the efforts of the Crown to avoid favouring this race or that may have been impolitic, we are largely disposed to admit; but we again say they oppose, instead of applying, the principle of "Divide et Impera."

#### FREAKS OF THE BANKRUPTCY COURT.

IT is a good thing to be a learned judge; it is also a good thing to be an amusing comic actor; but it is very difficult to unite these two characters with good taste and felicity. Those instances in which the attempt has been made with the greatest success have been when an actor, as such, has reproduced on the stage the peculiarities of some well-known dignitary. The late Mr. Mathews, as we have read, did in this manner delight an audience with a copy of the reigning Chief Justice, so faithful and so ludicrous, that the Lord Chamberlain actually feared lest the representation might tend to throw ridicule on the Bench and on the administration of justice, and authoritatively requested its suppression; and the prohibition was only violated at the demand of Royalty itself. In the present day, Chief Baron Nicholson has, for many years, amused a somewhat less select circle with a general burlesque of clients, advocates, jurymen, and judges, without leading the spectators to forget the actor; or, while applauding the skill and talent displayed by his mimicry, to fancy the caricature thus presented to them a reality.

We fear, however, that an exhibition which was the converse of these, would hardly be equally admired; and that, however alluring may be the spectacle of a buffoon putting on the semblance of a judge, the sight of a judge, while on the bench, assuming the part of a buffoon, would not commend itself to the taste of any audience, whose applause could be a matter of congratulation to the performer. Yet, in the general dearth of public amusement, consequent on the close of what is called, *par excellence*, the Season, Commissioner Fane, of the Bankruptcy Court, appears to have thought that he could give the frequenters of Basinghall-street a treat, and on Monday last announced to the bankrupts, their lawyers, their creditors, and others, who frequented his court, that "he had lately addressed a letter to Viscount Palmerston as Prime Minister, expressing his feelings as to the manner in which the Commissioners of the court had been treated by the Bankruptcy and Insolvency Bill now become law. He was anxious to give the utmost possible publicity to that letter, and with that view he intended to read it in this court the next day at twelve o'clock. He would be glad if some members of the bar who practise in that court, and some gentlemen connected with the press, would attend. And he hoped to have a sufficient number of printed copies of the letter, to supply every gentleman who might wish to have one."

Such a programme, "No money to be taken at the door, and a book of the performance gratis," drew together a large body of expectant auditors. The precise nature of the performance nobody knew; whether the Commissioner intended to let fly his wrath (since wrath he confessedly felt) at Lord Palmerston himself in his character of Prime Minister; or whether he only meant to make him a conductor for his lightning, the real mark for which was to be either the House of Lords, for curtailing the new Bankruptcy Bill, or the House of Commons for submitting to such curtailment; or the Law Lords who insisted on the uselessness of a chief judge; or the Crown lawyers, such as the Chancellor, the Attorney and Solicitor-General, for dilating on his expected utility, they neither knew nor cared. They were sure of a row, and prepared to applaud the Commissioner in his double character of author and performer; as we have seen Mr. Charles Mathews or Mr. Buckstone first called before the curtain as actor, and then again compelled to bow his acknowledgments from a side box as writer of some well-accepted farce.

Alas, that this impartial goodwill of theirs should have been doomed to disappointment; yet so it was. At the appointed hour of twelve the curtain drew up, but performance there was none. In the opinion of those present the house was crammed to quite as great a heat as the company could bear, and the thermometer amply corroborated their view; but the great performer had made up his mind before hand not to be satisfied with either the quantity or the quality of his

audience; and by "the advice of a friend, on whose judgment he placed the greatest reliance, he had resolved to postpone reading the letter he had announced till the close of the legal vacation. He was much obliged to those who had come to hear it, and very sorry for their disappointment; but it was only a temporary disappointment, as after the vacation he would assuredly read the letter." We take it for granted that, like other performers, "till that period he respectfully bade them farewell." But if he did so, this part of his address was lost to our ears in the scraping of feet which attended the hasty exit of the company in search of a cooler atmosphere.

If any among them were disappointed, we confess that we ourselves were not of that number. To have seen a judge turn the seat of justice into an arena for any kind of political discussion, much less for the abuse of the Ministers of the Crown, or the Houses of Parliament, or, at all events, of some bodies or individuals, whom—whatever his private opinions might be—it was a part of his duty, when seated on the judicial bench, to hold up to respect and reverence, would have been to us an humiliating and painful sight. Those whom Mr. Fane intended to assail would have been uninjured; but he himself, the judicial character, and, in some degree, the venerable person of Justice herself, would have suffered materially in every one's estimation, from such an exhibition of a total want of temper, judgment, and decency, on the part of one sworn to administer the laws of the kingdom in so different a spirit. Even the announcement of such an intention on the part of a judge must raise grave doubts in a reflecting mind on his fitness for his post, and lead, perhaps, to an inference which, if not strictly logical, is at least not wholly unnatural, that the justice administered by so eccentric a functionary is likely to be of a correspondingly eccentric character.

Yet in one respect Mr. Fane is to be congratulated. Tuesday's proceedings show that he has a friend not only wiser than himself (which would not be difficult), but possessed of sufficient influence over him to obtain a hearing for his wisdom. We are warned, indeed, that this influence is to wear off with time, for that the threatened exhibition will assuredly take place hereafter. We trust not. We cannot doubt that the remonstrance will be repeated, and if not yet wholly efficacious, we will borrow a phrase from the other side of the channel, and wish the remonstrator "more power to his elbow," that, as he has already procured a postponement, he may, by the 2nd of November, procure a total abandonment of a performance which, Mr. Fane may be assured, can discredit or injure no one but the performer.

#### THE CAUSE OF THE AMERICAN CONFLICT.

IT is not yet sufficiently impressed on the English mind that a great moral principle and not a mere political question lies at the root of the American disruption. Slavery is the inspiring cause of the war; and the interest connected with slavery will be closely involved in the details of the eventual settlement of the quarrel.

The South has for more than half a century been practically the governing power of America. For sixty years previous to 1841 the chief executive was occupied and wielded by Southern men. From 1841 to 1860, the Presidents, with the exception of two, were the choice, and substantially the nominees, of the South. The South has long boasted that it dictated the policy of the republic. Louisiana was purchased from the French at the urgent desire of the South. The annexation of Texas was accomplished by Southern votes. The war with Mexico had the same origin.

The election of President Lincoln was the first formidable evidence that the political power of the slave-holding South was on the decay. Mr. Breckinridge, the nominee of the South, whose policy it was to pronounce slavery a national institution, to be maintained and spread, if needs be, wide as the area of the stripes and stars, was defeated. Mr. Lincoln, whose policy was, "no extension of slavery beyond its present limits," the alteration of the fugitive slave law, and the reversal of the Dred Scott judgment "that blacks had no rights," was triumphantly carried into the Presidential chair.

Thus, what they suspected in 1856, when Colonel Fremont was almost elected, they found too true in the election of Mr. Lincoln—that the power of the South to enforce its principles on the whole Union was waning, and the prospects of the extinction of slavery looming still more clearly into view. This last election was the result of the triumph of freedom over slavery. No sooner did the slaveholders see this, and understand its lesson, than they organized their plans. They intended to seize the capital, and expel the President by force, and proclaim slavery to be the law of the United States. Foiled in this, their first design, they are now fighting for existence. But the real issue is still the maintenance of slavery or its extinction. Shall it receive national sanction and the opportunity of unlimited extension, or shall it be repressed as an evil, and wiped off the escutcheon of the republic as a foul stain? Which shall rule the new world—freedom or slavery? Numbers in the North who were formerly disposed to tolerate slavery under limitations, are now its most uncompromising enemies. The most moderate and forbearing apologists of slavery as an inherited institution which

they hoped one day to get rid of, are now turned into resolute abolitionists. The Hon. Daniel Dickenson, a distinguished leader of the Northern Democratic party, and a man of temperate judgment, says:—"I am for meeting the South on its own ground. I will have no half measures—no compromises. By the time this matter is settled, the peculiar institution of the South will be swept away. Let us finish things while we are about it, and leave nothing behind us." Dr. Patton remarks—"I am well pleased that the providence of God has made a united North, and that that North now sees most clearly that slavery is the great disturbing element in our body politic, that there can be no permanent peace whilst it is allowed any controlling power, and that it must now be placed where it can never again disturb the peace or endanger the permanency of the Union. I do not doubt that the grand and glorious result will be the speedy and entire abolition of slavery." The chief actors and rulers of the South no less clearly and thoroughly appreciate the controversy. The Vice-President of the Confederation states, "The New Constitution has put to rest for ever all the agitating questions relating to our peculiar institution, African slavery, as it exists among us. Its corner-stone rests upon the great truth that the NEGRO IS NOT EQUAL TO THE WHITE MAN, and that slavery to a superior race is his natural and normal condition." And a leading organ of Southern opinion declares—"The slavery question underlies the whole controversy, and is the true cause of the contest of arms."

We fear that the conclusion to which Dr. Patton's arguments led him is a little too sanguine, or at least is not likely to enjoy an early realization; but something may, not improbably, be gained to freedom by the notoriety of the fact that the retention of slavery has been the ground of the separation between the two Republics, as we shall soon learn to consider them. The fundamental discrepancy and antagonism in principle between the monarchical government of Canada and the Republican forms which prevailed to the south of the St. Lawrence have prevented our example, as enemies of slavery, from having its full weight; but when the soreness arising from the present conflict is healed, it can hardly be that the example of a state with a constitution resembling their own will not have its weight with the Southern Confederation, so that it may not be unreasonable to look forward to the day when even the cotton-growers of New Orleans, though they may still cling to the name of slavery, may relax its claims and modify its whole character; till, finding that they get little from it as it remains but the disgrace of the term, they may acquiesce in the substitution for it of the equally efficacious and less degrading service of the hired menial.

#### BARON RICASOLI'S LETTER.

**B**ARON RICASOLI has just addressed a circular despatch to the Italian Ambassadors at the different European courts, recapitulating the chief political events which have occurred in his country since his own attainment of the position which he now occupies; and it is impossible to avoid scrutinising with great anxiety the first state paper of the new Prime Minister of a kingdom in a situation so peculiar and unprecedented as that of Italy; since on the qualities which he may display, and on the motives and feelings by which he is actuated, the prosperity of his nation must, and the peace of the world may, both in a great degree depend. It is, therefore, with no ordinary satisfaction, that we recognize throughout this despatch a moderation of tone and a sobriety of judgment which justifies us in auguring well of the future tenor of the Baron's administration. He acknowledges, with national pride and gratitude, the splendid services of his predecessor without showing any inclination to be tempted, out of any spirit of undue rivalry with that departed statesman, to measures of striking effect rather than of solid wisdom. He speaks with pardonable exultation of the progress hitherto made by the new kingdom without either shutting his eyes to the difficulties of the path along which it and he have got to travel; or, on the other hand, exaggerating those perplexities in order to derive the greater credit from overcoming them. And throughout the whole document which, while addressed formally to his country's representatives abroad, is in reality intended still more for the instruction of his countrymen at home, he seeks to excite the Italians to a performance of their duty by manifesting a full appreciation of, and a resolute determination to perform his own.

He encourages them also to persevere in this path of duty, by praising them for the discretion with which they have hitherto trodden it. He points with reasonable satisfaction to the regularity and order with which the elections to the new Parliament were conducted, even in those provinces in which peace was far from being established; though the "fallen king" of Naples still continued to occupy Gaeta, while in Sicily no attempt had yet been made to wrest Messina from his grasp. And he remarks, as a circumstance equally full of promise for the future, on the unanimity of feeling which animated the deputies thus elected, who, though convoked from so many different provinces, which had been previously governed under such a variety of constitutions, nevertheless displayed so striking an accord

on the fundamental ideas of government and on the system to be pursued, that even the Opposition did not so much resist the principles of the King's Government as seek to outrun them in practice, by pushing them beyond the bounds which experience and political experience could sanction.

To his predecessor, Cavour, he alludes in a few well-chosen words, pointing out that the events which have happened since his death have proved on how solid a foundation his system was based, and how complete "an exponent he was of the *conscience* of the nation;" and that "the country, the Parliament, and the Government," feeling that his loss only imposed on them "the necessity of uniting themselves more closely than ever," have, in their principal legislative measures, been only carrying out his intentions. This is the spirit in which a statesman should be mourned—"Non hoc precipuum amicorum munus est prosequi defunctum ignavo planctu; sed que voluerit meminisse, que mandaverit exequi." And as, however, we may question the exact straightforwardness of his conduct in one particular, it cannot be denied that events have proved that no one better understood the solid interests of his country, or pursued them more unselfishly, we may see additional reason to augur well of the new administration from this honest praise of the dead, and this frank avowal of the desire and intention to follow in the course which he marked out.

We may also well agree with the Baron when he sees in the institution of the National Guard, and in the zeal with which the citizens flocked to enlist themselves in its ranks, a proof of their confidence in the stability of their Government, and a resolution on their part to contribute to that stability by their own self-denying exertions. As also when he infers from the facility with which the loan required by the Government was taken up, that that confidence is shared by other nations; that Europe in general sees, in the events which have taken place in the peninsula, something "greater than a revolution—a restoration of regular and normal order."

But this is not all. If we have reason to be satisfied with what we find in this despatch, we have at least equal reason to be pleased at what we do not find in it. It contains no threat towards any other country; no defiance of Austria; no claim to Venetia; or, if any one should fancy that, in phrases of such studied generality as those which speak of "a part" as "still wanting to the completeness of Italy," and of Europe's eventual conviction that "the Italians have a right to possess altogether their territory," he can detect the remains of a hankering after the Austrian province; it is at least equally fair to see in such guarded and ambiguous language a disposition to renounce all idea of any forcible prosecution of such a wish; and a tacit acknowledgment that it deserves to be classed among the day-dreams denounced by Horace as silly, though still such as even philosophers are prone to fall into, rather than among the sober plans of a practical statesman. The only acquisition plainly alluded to as object of hope is that of Rome, which, it is not obscurely intimated, would already have become a part of the Italian kingdom had it not been for "foreign intrigue" and "foreign occupation." The precise way in which this difficulty is to be solved it may not be easy to see; it may, we fear, be doubted whether the Church, by which is meant the Pope, will agree that Victor Emmanuel best understands her true interests, "when he asks her to divest herself of the feudal rights which a barbarous age gave her, and which are incompatible with civilization" (remarkable words when issuing from the mouth of an Italian statesman!); or whether she will willingly accept, or even comprehend the offer of receiving "in exchange, independence and full and entire liberty in the exercise of her holy ministry, and the gratitude and respect of a regenerated nation."

But that Rome must inevitably soon be incorporated with the new kingdom we have no doubt whatever. Nor do we believe that he who is the sole obstacle to its being so has any desire eventually to hinder what he, with his belief in Destiny, cannot fail to perceive to be as fixedly determined by the Fates, as was his own attainment of his imperial crown. His conduct in still retaining his troops in Rome arises probably only from his being bewildered by the difficulty so often felt by all but those whose minds are of the highest order, in recalling a false step, and withdrawing gracefully from an unnatural position. That he must withdraw is certain. It is equally certain that his withdrawal will seal the downfall of the Papal authority in Rome. And when this is the case, even if we speak with less certainty of belief than the Baron, we may at least join in the hope which he expresses, that Italy, then a compact and united kingdom, and freed from the presence of foreign troops in its very centre, will, as a power of the first class, independent at home and respected abroad, become an additional guarantee for peace and order; and, as such, an additional agent of great influence in the diffusion of "universal civilization."

EPIGRAPH ON A WIFE.—The following pretty lines are to be found on a tombstone in Eltham:—

"My wife lies here beneath,  
Alas! from me she's flown;  
She was so good that Death  
Would have her for his own."

**THE FALL IN THE RATE OF DISCOUNT; A GOOD THING  
OR A BAD?**

THE Bank lowered the rate of discount last Thursday. The variations in the rate of interest, in quite recent times, have been immense. Some ten years ago money was called in the City a drug. Bankers with difficulty obtained 1½ or even 1 per cent. on the loans they advanced. Political economists caught up the fact and generalized it into a great theory, announcing that the tendency of highly civilized and peaceful communities was to heap up capital for which there was no employment, and holding out the dismal vision of a society ceasing to save and to grow rich, because no reward could be procured for the self-denial which had refrained to consume all. A permanently low interest we were taught to consider as the normal rule for prolonged peace. If wars, droughts, and famines refused to carry on the work of destruction for us, the world would have such a plethora of wealth, such a perplexing mass of accumulated good things, that they must absolutely rot away for want of use. Chancellors of the Exchequer became penetrated with the same idea, and Mr. Gladstone propounded a grand scheme for converting the National Debt into a 2½ per cent. Stock. For a few weeks the scheme promised well; but unfortunately for permanent success, Mr. Gladstone had fallen upon the exact moment when the tide turned, when low rates of interest and cheap discount had commenced to ebb away, and when facts were about to prove that the economical philosophers, even such men as Mr. Mill, had been singularly over hasty in their generalizations.

Since then a new series of phenomena has presented itself. Amidst no little anxiety and even consternation at first, merchants found rates rise against them in the discount market; the competition for capital grew gradually more severe; what had been called a tight money market had become ease itself compared with the severities which owners of loanable capital had subsequently practised, and at last 6, 8, and even 10 per cent. were the unheard of and astounding novelties to which the amazed mercantile community was brought.

It is a matter of no small interest and practical importance to study the nature of these occurrences, and, if possible, to discover the laws which govern them. That the trading portion of the country long misunderstood them, and that this ignorance of their true character involved many an excellent but ill-informed merchant in heavy loss is certain. The City is the home of empiricism. In the whole range of pursuits engendered by civilized life, there is no region in which the future is so perseveringly judged by a narrow appeal to the past, in which the forms and the numerical figures which have gone before are so surely set down as those which must necessarily recur afterwards, as the money-market. Thus, it is always the memory of the oldest inhabitant, the experience of the most ancient merchant or banker, which is held up as the oracle of wisdom. Everything around may have changed, new conditions of life may have developed themselves on every side, the rule remains the same; what some grand old merchant, who has made a large fortune in the past, asserts, is listened to as the purest gospel. Facts, however, always triumph in the long run. The rising tide of discount raised the apprehension of a destroying flood throughout the City; it was proclaimed to be a passing event, and was ascribed to the first superficial cause which presented itself; but it not only rose, but refused to ebb; and, at last, it has been practically discovered that continued high rates of interest are very consistent with a strong and expanding prosperity. The alarm passed away, because ruin was not found to follow; yet we doubt whether any great insight has yet been arrived at by the City into the origin of this change, and whether merchants will be better prepared than of old to meet the fluctuations, both up and down, which are certain to occur.

The general rate of interest—speaking only of the average level, without reference to the varying rate on various kinds of securities,—as all the world knows, depends on the supply of capital offering itself for employment; it is a portion of the profit accruing in any business conceded to the lender, who furnishes means for carrying it on. When capital is abundant, interest is low, because bankers and capitalists are eager to find borrowers; when capital is scarce, interest rises, because it is now the turn of the borrowers to compete with each other in finding lenders. This everybody sees; but the fact which is not so commonly apprehended is, that the scarcity of capital may result from two very distinct origins. It may be found deficient in respect of the demand for it, either because it has actually diminished, is really and absolutely less than it was; or because, whilst it remains the same, a stronger demand has sprung up for its use, and it is thus only relatively, and not absolutely scarce.

A bad harvest, war, losses by fire or shipwreck, the non-arrival of ships laden with merchandise, deficiency of water to turn machinery, local diminutions in the supply of fuel,—all reduce the quantity of capital in the country. There are fewer commodities, less food, a smaller supply of tools and clothing for workmen. Those who have fields for profitable employment of capital thus encounter reduced supplies; they must pay more highly to obtain what they seek—interest rises. Or, on the other hand, whilst new stores provided by saving accumulate only at a moderate rate, new sources of profit may open rapidly on the community: fresh lands reclaimed from the sea, and requiring capital to start them, and labourers to cultivate them; new markets giving access to increased customers; colonies, or waste lands hitherto uncultivated, calling for capitalists and labourers, and promising lucrative remuneration. The supplies of capital are now severely taxed; the returns of industry are large, and admit of handsome interest for the loan of capital,—interest again rises, and may, for a long period, remain constantly high.

Of the two main causes which lead to a rise in the rate of interest, the former, the actual diminution of the existing capital, is a matter for unmixed regret; it is a pure loss, unbalanced by any compensating gain whatever. No one is richer or happier for a ship lost at sea, or fields devastated in war. But an augmented rate, resulting from increased profitability of industry and an enlarged demand for capital, is clearly a national gain, though it may possibly at first be attended with considerable inconvenience to individuals. An old country, brought under the influence of such agents, assumes the position of a new one, where, as we know, a virgin soil creates large profits, great remuneration for labour, and a very high rate of interest. In such regions vast fortunes are more easily made, so immense are the returns which are at once obtained by exertion. The cry of the City will always be for low discounts

and easy money markets; but it ought not to be the cry of the whole country when those satisfactory phenomena, as they are thought, arise from a diminished profitability of labour, or a relative superabundance of capital in respect of the means of employing it. Those who are hurt are always more noisy than those who are thriving; and the peculiar manner of conducting foreign commerce always renders a large number of merchants liable to be hurt by a rise of discount. The chief machinery used by merchants is the capital at the command of the money market; or, in other words, the deposits at bankers, which are made up almost entirely of the uninvested savings of the whole public. The rivulets of the few hundreds, or even tens, which each man keeps at his bankers, form the great stream which floats the commerce of England. The merchant buys his cargo, and pays for it with bills that are discounted in the market; in other words, he borrows from depositors at banks the money with which he buys his merchandise, to be restored when in due course the goods are sold. The more every merchant has to pay for getting his bill discounted, the greater is the diminution of his profit, and hence he has a very keen interest in desiring a low rate at the bank. But it must be remembered, on the other side, that what the merchants lose, the depositors, that is, the public, gain; and if the rise be the fruit of increased profit, the merchant is himself able to afford a higher rate, and the whole community is benefited.

In truth, the hardship on the merchant generally comes from the suddenness of the fluctuation; capital is often dearer either before the augmented profits have come generally into play, or, which is more usual, after the merchant has entered into engagements, but before he has obtained the means of paying for them. The dearness of the discount is thus to him an unbalanced loss, and the longer the date of the contract the larger is the pressure upon him. Men of this class, speculators of every kind, all who are eager to engage in new enterprises, to send out orders for foreign commodities to be paid for by bills, make up the mass of what is called the City, and for them facility of discount and low rates are clear gains. But few think of the public, of those who have capital to lend, whether deposited in banks or existing in other forms, and to whom a low rate of interest is an unmitigated loss. A great mercantile house loves to negotiate its bills cheaply, but the owners of savings have a right, and, for the national welfare, a far more useful right of lending their money dearly. Happily the two interests are capable of being reconciled, for a high rate of interest, provided only that it be steady and of long continuance, is no injury to the merchant; it implies large profits, larger returns of capital, and he can afford to pay more.

In most cases the pressure on the money market, and the consequent distress and outcry, have proceeded from the destruction of capital, from bad harvests, short cotton crops, and similar causes. The aversion to a high rate of interest under such circumstances is well founded, and a return to moderate discount is to be hailed as a clear boon. When a high rate has resulted from augmented employment for capital there is really no pressure, for money at ten per cent. in Australia or America is no indication whatever of pressure. The high rates current during the last ten years admirably illustrate this truth. Previously to the influence of the bad harvest of last year being felt, the profits and consequent expansion of trade in England were enormous, and very high prices had to be paid for the use of capital. Yet no one complained; there was no alarm, no uneasiness, no anxious sighing for low interest, and with reason; for the causes which had made money dear were matters only for congratulation. Interest had been raised by the unexampled opportunities for employing capital advantageously which had been furnished by improved communications and sounder relations with every part of the globe. The vast fields of India, Australia, Canada, America, and the East generally, had generated commerce in an ever-expanding ratio. The spread of railroads, the multiplication of ocean steamers, the improvement in navigation, and the growth of universal intelligence had produced more markets, more investments of English capital in distant lands, more buyers of British goods, more borrowers of British capital, and more imports of valuable cargoes into England. These were the causes which baffled Mr. Gladstone's scheme for lowering the interest on the national debt; and though, of course, every reduction of taxation is an economical benefit to the whole nation, the benefits which resulted from this increased profitability of capital far exceeded the advantage of a half per cent. on the funds.

How, then, are we to interpret the lowering of the rate of discount this week at the Bank of England? Ought we to be glad or to be sorry for it? Is it a prognostication of a slackening of the demand for capital, through increased difficulty of employing it advantageously, or is it a return from an exceptional and temporary, to an ordinary and regular state of things? We believe that both causes are at work now. We cannot doubt that the loss occasioned by the harvest of 1860 is being gradually effaced, and that a great deficiency is so far repaired. This is a clear reason for rejoicing. But we apprehend also that there is a trace of an influence to be discerned in the fall, which may work mischief hereafter; we think we hear an echo, faint as yet, of the American calamity. When the revolution broke out all over Europe in 1848, the English money market obtained a larger supply of means, partly by investments made in England from abroad, and still more from the curtailment of trade by the political insecurity of Europe. Our merchants were afraid of long ventures; for they could not feel safe against the possible contingencies of the violence of a revolutionary mob, or of war. So now, we believe, capital is beginning to flow from America to England. It has been already announced from Ireland that some of her emigrant sons are returning to their native land with the wealth they have acquired. And, as in 1848, we think it highly probable that the civil war in America has interfered with the demand for English capital. The war expenditure of the Americans is a manifest diminution of their means for trading; they have less money to devote to the growth of corn and cotton, and consequently fewer products wherewith to sustain English industry in supplying their wants. May the cause be as temporary as we trust the inferior yield of our harvest will be. If grain is abundant, and harmony is restored to America, we have no doubt that the influence of these two counteracting causes will ultimately be stronger, and that the tendency of interest will still be to rule high; there is too much profitable work to be done in the world, and too great facilities for obtaining access to new markets in China and elsewhere, to make a relative redundancy of capital probable. The force of the temporary and exceptional influences each man must

estimate for himself; but, under normal conditions, and as a general rule for some time to come, our opinion is that England will present the opposite aspect from that formerly painted by the political economists, and that the world will furnish profitable employment for capital, and the materials for a rather high rate of permanent interest.

#### "THE SEASON."

WE regret to have to announce the demise of the London Season of 1861. This event, however much it may be to be deplored, cannot be said to have been altogether unexpected. The deceased was well stricken in months, and was already nearing the allotted age of seasons, when ministerial whitebait and operatic farewells afforded the usual premonitory symptoms of approaching dissolution. Notwithstanding the exhibition of stimulants in the shape of a ball or two, and some desolate garden parties, the patient never fairly rallied. Depletion of the parks, clubs, streets, and other vital organs was followed, after a short interval, by determination of the best blood to the railway termini, or extremities; and on the evening of the 11th ult., all was over. It is satisfactory to know that the managers of the principal lines of rail were constantly on the spot, and devoted all the available resources of their establishments to the alleviation of the last sad struggle. We have the best authority for stating, that a more tranquil departure was never witnessed. As there is no use in prolonging a useless sorrow, it may be not out of place to venture a few observations upon the characteristics of some of the aspirants of good society as developed in this and previous seasons.

It is very generally objected that the aspirants in question are called upon to waste a great deal of precious energy upon frivolous pursuits, which hold out no hope of adequate, or, in fact, of any, reward. We are inclined to think that the objectors argue upon false premises. Everybody in this world must do something, if they would not fall victims to that greatest of curses, *ennui*. It is only when this something is quite unworthy of their powers that they can reasonably be said to waste them. The whole thing then resolves itself into the question, do or do not our minor swells, for it is to them we are alluding, estimate themselves at their real value, when they refuse to attempt anything more serious than the touting for invitations to drums and balls? This pursuit may not be very manly or very dignified; but then it is not everybody that is manly and dignified. Beefsteaks and XXX are the natural food for hearty stomachs, while the assimilating power of others is severely tried by revolting Arabica and chicken meat. So with men; exertions of lofty aim, that would but serve to invigorate the stronger nature, will utterly prostrate the weaker one. A silk purse is not to be made out of a sow's ear, and a man is scarcely to be blamed for the non-performance of that which is to him an impossibility, particularly if—and here we meet the second objection—the reward of more congenial efforts is both substantial, and of the very kind which he is qualified to appreciate. There is a great deal in gratified vanity, and it were idle to argue that the hope of framing his chimney-glass with the selectest of drums and at-homes does not spur on the flagging paces of the ball-goer. But this is far from being what we believe metaphysicians call his be-all and end-all. In his generation he is no fool. He pricks his ears, and scents more substantial results, though they be still in the far distance. It may be that he will eventually achieve these more by instinct than plan. Our own experience teaches that, if instinct but prompt him rightly as to his first step, a little perseverance and the force of circumstances will do the rest. The swell's progress in the substantial direction is somewhat as follows:—

All houses that issue invitations are not alike; some are emphatically good; others are—well, not quite so good. This difference does not depend upon the birth, wealth, or character of the owner, nor even upon the greater or less perfection of his establishment. In fact, it is difficult to say upon what it does depend, if not upon that very uncertain and rather vulgar prejudice called fashion. However, the distinction exists, and it is of the most vital importance. Upon an accurate appreciation of the functions of the two classes of houses, as regards himself, depend the fortunes of the Belgravian adventurer. The one great fact to be borne in mind is, that the good things of second-rate houses are the eventual reward of admission to first-rate ones. "Good" people admit the adventurer to their drawing-rooms, and thereby give him all that he can hope from them, which is social position. Second-rate people, in due time, recognize this position, and, in their turn, give him all that he desires from them, which is good eating and drinking. This truth is of invariable application. First get on the best visiting lists, and the rest will follow as surely as the sun shines at noon-day. To work up to first-rates through second-rates is a plan that can never answer. The former, and the former only, must be the objects of preliminary touting. No theory of fashionable conduct can be worth anything without the clearest understanding of this grand rule. The wished-for invitation once secured, the invited must prize it for itself alone. What is he that the topmost aristocracy should give him of its flesh-pots? They are reserved for others, who are to the position born. In the first instance indeed, the scene of his success will also be that of his discomfiture. This is quite natural, considering that M. or N. is for the moment supposed to be but a beginner, and that nobody, in London, cares a jot for anybody who is not a little better placed than himself. Hence, cold shoulders and averted faces, scant choice among even the uglier and less agreeable of the other sex, and a general feeling of being where he has no business to be, will be the first triumphs carried off by him whose device is *Excelsior*. But by the following noon the *Morning Post* will have introduced a fresh name to the notice of a thousand breakfast-tables. This fact is of itself a consolation and an encouragement. The foot is on the first step of the topmost ladder; the footing is as yet insecure; but soon it will be confirmed. It is then that the second-rates, who stand below, will begin to press upon the climber those substantial prizes, which were in part the motive of his climbing. "Is it not a good thing to give of our best to him whose head overtops his fellows? The head in question may be a little turned, but then it has arrived at a giddy eminence; so stoop, your highness, deign to accept what we have to offer,—viands, society, sport; and, if your eye inclines to women, only smile, and throw your handkerchief at your servants' daughters."

We don't think that our aspirant has any business to be dissatisfied,

because the favours awarded him by "good" houses are limited to bare admission. The flesh-pots, which constitute his substantial gratification, are every bit as good in inferior circles. Nor is this assertion of the electro-plate kind, where equality to silver means nothing more than outward resemblance. The pheasants of not quite good houses are as really fat, the hunters as really clever, the "sweet and dry" as undeniable, the young ladies as charming, as those of any *crème de la crème* in existence. As to the system followed, he does no more than the prudent under-graduate, who, having secured open university honours, migrates to the smaller college, where fellowships are fat and classmen few. Who can justly grudge either of them their labour's worth?

This word labour, reminds us that there is a point upon which we have not enough insisted, although it is the one of all others which most dignifies the pursuit under our notice. The masculine philosophy of the period estimates all success according to the amount of self-denial necessary to its attainment. Now, of social success the first condition is self-denial. Intimate proximity to sylphs in crinoline is but a small set-off to vitiated atmosphere, late, or rather early hours, snubs innumerable, and unnoticed cards. The proximity itself, if it occasion the tearing of flounces, is not so very desirable. On the other hand, be the sylph ever so amiable, there is a subtle torture in eyes that wander a-field, while the lips encourage the nearer admirer. The satisfactions of vanity are all very well, but they don't do when they alternate with vexation of spirit. It is not too much to say, that a state of mind oscillating between these two extremes, and inclining to the latter, is enough to try the sternest fortitude. And yet day after day, or rather night after night, the ill-understood hero of society undauntedly toes the scratch.

It is possible that the clients whose case we have undertaken to argue may object to some part of our advocacy. We may seem to under-rate their capacity, and to illustrate their peculiar method by unsavoury comparisons. We could not avoid it. To have supposed them equal to the appreciation of the better course, while devoting themselves to the worse, would at once have secured them an adverse verdict. We have chosen to take their usual career, as a criterion of their tastes, and to prove, by a theory founded upon observation of their behaviour, how wisely they laboured for the gratification of those tastes. After all, hunting and shooting, pretty women, and the height of eating and drinking, are no bad things in their way, especially for those who are fit for nothing better. Because there are women like Miss Nightingale, and men whose efforts are a benefit to their species, shall there be no more cakes and ale?

#### THE SLAVE TRADE TO CUBA.

A BRACE of Blue Books not long published contain information respecting the slave trade no less important than interesting. From them we learn that this abominable traffic is still in active existence,—that it is still pursued with zest and eagerness. In one word, it is as great as ever. Looking back upon what England has done, the money she has spent, the sacrifices she has made, the blood she has spilt, in the endeavour to deliver humanity from this frightful curse, the facts disclosed by the correspondence before us must be regarded not only with pain, but with some degree of humiliation. The weight of England's influence has been thrown into the contest, and has proved ineffectual. It is a mere feather in the wind when opposed to the enormous profits of the trade. Moral right against self-interest, in this regard, has failed.

Almost every despatch that has issued from our Foreign Office to the Spanish Government and the Cuban authorities, teems with expressions that would have roused the spirit of any Government not entirely dead to the dictates of honour and humanity. The vocabulary of expostulation, of grave rebuke, of solemn warning, has been exhausted, without producing the slightest impression. Vague replies, and never-to-be-performed promises, have, indeed, been extorted from the Spaniards; but the great fact of the increase of the slave trade gives the lie to all their professions.

The judge of the Mixed Commission Court at the Havana thus gives his opinion:—"It is clear, at least we have had the experience of more than twenty-five years, that no efforts have been made by Spain to put an end to the slave trade." And again, "I must decidedly beg leave to state this as my opinion to your lordship, after the experience and observation of nearly nineteen years' service here, that there is no intention on the part of the Spanish Government, or its officers, to carry out the provisions of the treaty." Such a statement as this requires no further comment.

Another short extract from Mr. Crawford's despatch shows the enormous profits derived from the trade. "The slaver can suffer ten captures of ships equipped, or five of ships with negroes on board, for one successful adventure." And such is the low state of morality fostered by this iniquitous traffic, that the Spanish officials who are enriched by its continuance are sunk in degradation and contempt. The proverbial honour of the Spaniard has been forgotten in the eagerness to gain riches by speculations in flesh and blood. There are actually joint stock companies forming at Cuba, with a large amount of capital subscribed, for the purpose of maintaining regular fleets, and systematically carrying on the trade.

The statistics afforded by the Blue Books are as follows:—Upwards of 24,000 were introduced into Cuba during the year 1860. About 3,000 (a very small proportion) have been captured. It must be remembered that these 24,000 slaves are known to have been imported into Cuba. Thousands more have doubtless been taken there of which we have no information. It requires an annual importation of 32,000 slaves, in consequence of the great mortality among them, to sustain the cultivation of the island.

Another important feature disclosed in these Blue Books is the attitude assumed by the American Government in regard to this question. It seems to have been far from conciliating—almost overbearing; and there is a good deal of fencing between Lord John Russell and General Cass. Almost all the propositions made by our Foreign Secretary with a view to the diminution of the slave trade have been rejected with scorn. Lord John's proposal to substitute free immigration from China into Cuba for the present mode of supplying labour, although it met with the approval of the French Government, was mercilessly snubbed by the American. Another proposal that the cruisers of the two nations should watch together (forming an Anglo-American squadron), with a certain fixed plan of operations, met with no better fate; whilst the idea that ships bearing strong evidence of being engaged in the slave-trade, and carrying the stars and stripes, should be subjected to the

inspection of British vessels, is scouted with great indignation. In fact, the discussion grows so warm that Lord John, in reply to a hint from the other side that the subject had better be dropped, declares that he will speak the truth, however unpalatable it may be, and with this the correspondence in the volumes before us closes.

Altogether the picture presented is very dark and sad; it deserves well the attention of Englishmen. We have nobly led the van in the grand struggle which has for its object the sweeping away from the face of the earth this hateful traffic; but there is abundant evidence that the work so well begun is still incomplete, that the end is far from being fully accomplished.

#### PARLIAMENTARY REPORTERS.

SIR FRANCIS PALGRAVE, in his valuable repertory of ancient laws and customs, entitled "A History of the Rise and Progress of the English Commonwealth during the Anglo-Saxon period," makes an observation to the effect that much of that liberty which Englishmen now enjoy is traceable to the seemingly small and simple fact that the people adhered to the ancient practice of having the elections of their representatives in the open air, instead of permitting them to be carried on in close chambers or within the narrow walls of any building. The ancient popular courts were all held in the open air. "The four men, the reeve, and the priests of every township," were nominated in the open air; and so were, and so continue to be nominated, the knights of every shire. The opportunity of knowing how that was done in which all were interested, was afforded to all. No such matter was ever transacted with closed doors.

Publicity was the life and soul of the ancient English Commonwealth; and it was not until the art of printing was invented that the jealousy of Lords and Commons was evinced towards the new mode of communicating information respecting what was said and done in "the High Court of Parliament." It was admitted that what each man was allowed to hear it was permissible for him to speak about; but a distinction was made between hearing and reporting, speaking and publishing. In reflecting on the distinction thus made we should bear in mind the great contrast between the ancient Witenagemote and the modern Parliament. Legislation formed only a small portion of the duties of the one; and law-making constitutes the principal occupation of the other. No attempt has ever been made to punish as "an offence" the reporting the proceedings in a court of justice,—and the House of Lords is still "the supreme court of judicature"; whereas, the reporting of the consultations of the Parliament, as if its members were, in that capacity, the king's privy councillors, has been not only disconcerted, but punished as a species of "high crime and misdemeanour."

To the predecessors of those gentlemen who are now known as the "Parliamentary reporters" is the country indebted for a change which, in effect, makes Public Opinion the real monarch in England, guiding its policy, influencing its diplomacy, controlling its expenditure, appointing ministers and displacing them. Most truly, then, has it been said by Lord Macaulay: "The gallery in which the reporters sit has now become a fourth estate of the realm. The publication of debates, a practice which seemed to the most liberal statesman of the old school full of danger to the safeguards of public liberty, is now regarded by many persons as a safeguard tantamount, and more than tantamount, to all the rest together."

In looking back upon the struggle between the press and the Parliament, we find a conspicuous position occupied by a certain placeman in the reign of George the Second, named Sir William Yonge. On the 13th of April, 1738, the Speaker, Onslow, complained that there was "an account of their deliberations in the newspapers" (!) upon which Sir William Yonge declared his determination to have the printers punished, because, said he, "they deserve to be punished; and if you do not either punish them, or take some effectual method of checking them, you may soon expect to see your votes, your proceedings, and your speeches, printed and hawked about the streets while we are sitting in this House."

Let us now see what was the character amongst his contemporaries of the person who so strongly denounced as a monstrous iniquity the publication of Parliamentary debates. Lord Hervey, in his "Memoirs of the Reign of George II.," thus alludes to Sir William Yonge:—

"He had no wit in private conversation; but he was remarkably quick in taking hints to harangue upon in Parliament; he had a knack of words there that was surprising, considering how little use they were to him anywhere else. He had a great command of what is called Parliamentary language, and a talent of talking eloquently without a meaning, and expatiating agreeably upon nothing beyond any man, I believe, that ever had the gift of speech" (vol. i. p. 48).

The same author says, "The king used to call him 'stinking Yonge';" and Lord Hervey adds, "His name was proverbially used to express everything pitiful, corrupt, and contemptible."

Although reporters are now nightly in Parliament, their presence there is still felt as a great check upon the many modern William Yorges, who resemble him in his "talent of talking without a meaning," though not so much in his eloquence, and who are doomed to find their speeches treated with a brevity proportionate to their intrinsic demerits.

The history of Parliamentary reporting may be said to commence with the year 1771—not ninety years ago—when the courage of the London Corporation foiled the House of Commons in its attempt to punish printers of newspapers for publishing the debates.

The right of the public to know what was said and done in Parliament was sulkily and grudgingly admitted. For a long time no accommodation was afforded to the reporters. On the contrary, they were liable to be arrested if seen taking a note of what was said by the Lords or Commons. The consequence was that persons were to be found capable of remembering the substance of a debate, such as William Radcliffe, the husband of the celebrated novelist, and William Woodfall, who was known by the name of "Memory Woodfall." Then came another change, the introduction of several reporters for the same paper—a change first effected by Mr. Perry, the proprietor of the *Morning Chronicle*, to whom, with Mr. Walter, of the *Times*, the country is indebted beyond all other persons, for embodying

that most remarkable class of men. They were followed by Mr. Thwaites, of the *Morning Herald*, and then by the *Morning Post*. Mr. Perry first established a corps of Parliamentary reporters; but Mr. Walter, in forming a Parliamentary corps, sought to improve its quality, and to have the very best men connected with his journal. Upon that principle the *Times* has invariably acted; and all that the other journals have ever been able to do is to compete with it in attaching to their respective staffs those persons of the most various accomplishments and acquirements who were desirous of entering the gallery.

To the uninitiated public it may be necessary here to explain that there are, or should be, connected with the London morning newspapers, three classes of reporters,—first, "the Parliamentary;" second, "the law;" and thirdly, "the casual" reporters. The last giving an account of inquests, the proceedings in police offices, or public meetings of various kinds; the second reporting the legal proceedings in the House of Lords, the Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, &c., and the Assizes; the first having as their sole and exclusive duty the reporting the debates in both Houses of Parliament. The inducements to a gentleman of high qualifications to become a Parliamentary reporter were these: he had a permanent annual engagement, at a certain salary—the lowest sum being five guineas a week—and this paid whether the Parliament was sitting or not. By no possibility (if expected to be in either House the same night) could he be required to do anything during the regular sitting of Parliament before four o'clock in the afternoon; and as Wednesday was seldom a day of much labour, he had, even whilst Parliament was sitting, the prospect of not more than four days of toil and anxiety. Thus abundance of time was afforded to him to prepare himself for any profession he chose, or to occupy his leisure hours in every day, and his leisure days in every week, and his leisure months in every year in other literary and profitable occupations, whether writing for weekly or country newspapers, or contributing to the magazines or quarterly reviews, or seeking to establish a name for himself as an author. Such were the inducements to young men to become Parliamentary reporters, and it is not surprising that they proved effective; for instance, to take the best-known living specimens of their class, they brought into the gallery Mr. W. H. Russell, the Crimean and Indian correspondent of the *Times*, and Charles Dickens, who never was connected with the *Times*, but left the *Mirror of Parliament*, which paid a guinea "a turn," to become a regular Parliamentary reporter on the *Morning Chronicle*.

As an instance of what was effected by newspapers in former times, we may refer to the Edinburgh banquet, in 1834, to Earl Grey, at which speeches were delivered by Lord Brougham and Lord Durham, which proved that division was already rending to pieces the Reform Ministry. To this banquet the *Times* and the *Chronicle* sent their best Parliamentary reporters. The *Times* was represented by John Tyas, James Woods, James Sheridan, and Eugene Nugent; the *Chronicle*, by Thomas Beard and Charles Dickens. The *Times* won the race by several hours, its report being published in London several hours before the *Chronicle* reporters—although travelling all the way in a post-chaise and four—could reach London. The manner in which it was won was this:—The *Times*, by sending so many reporters to Edinburgh, calculated that on their return they would have finished the account of the banquet before they reached Wetherby; and all the way from Wetherby, Mr. Delane—the manager of the *Times*, and the most marvellous arranger of expresses that ever existed—had posted single horses to carry up with a speed that can now only be surpassed by an express railway-train, the report, so as to have it printed and circulated all over London at an early hour in the morning! That trip alone cost the *Chronicle* £400. We are not aware how much was the expenditure of the *Times* on the same occasion, but it may be fairly supposed it was much more.

We refer to this fact as an illustration of the energy and power the *Times* has shown on all occasions requiring the manifestation of such qualities; but we have another purpose in referring to it, and that is, to show the manner in which that journal acts towards those who have devoted themselves to its service. All the Parliamentary reporters who were at that banquet are now dead. Two of them—Nugent and Sheridan—died very young. Sheridan, who caught a cold by going outside the chaise to urge the post-boys to a greater speed, was cared for by the *Times* in his sickness, sent down to Devonshire, and an ample allowance to the day of his death provided for him. Upon Mr. Woods retiring from the gallery, £300 a year was settled on him, and the same sum was bestowed annually upon Mr. Tyas, of whom it may be remarked that he was a distinguished Greek scholar.

But where there was not that organization, which seems only to be found in the *Times* office, the energy and talents of individuals employed on other newspapers were often found capable of compensating for it—as, for instance, at the Glasgow Banquet, in January, 1837, to Sir Robert Peel. At an hour's notice the leading reporter of the *Morning Chronicle*, Mr. Beard, had to start for Glasgow—was for sixty hours on the outside of the coach, and for a greater part of the time in a snow-storm—had, on his arrival in Glasgow, to seek out tickets to enable him to attend the inauguration and banquet in the evening; then to start at once in a postchaise for Manchester, writing all the time until he reached that city; and then, with only a few hours' rest, to start the next day for Leeds, where a banquet was given to Lord Morpeth (the present Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland)—to write out that report while posting up to London; and amid all those difficulties to produce a composition which excited the admiration of all who read it, and so much wonder in the principal speaker, Lord Morpeth, that he called at the *Chronicle* office to express not merely the satisfaction it had afforded, but to express his desire to become acquainted with the reporter.

But here we must pause in reference to the "gallery," and the many accomplished gentleman who have filled, or still occupy a seat of it.

In the new Houses of Parliament there are galleries exclusively appropriated to the use of the reporters, with apartments attached, and to which none but themselves have the right of access—and so "the fourth estate"—the representatives of the absent public are firmly established at their posts, and thus both branches of the Legislature seem to say to the Parliamentary reporters, "Let the people know how we are discharging the task we have undertaken to perform,"—"Fac omnem auritum populum."

In London the great struggle for publicity was against the Parliament; but out of London a contest of another kind was going on—and that was

to secure publicity in every place where the law was nominally administered, and practical injustice done. Even in England—ay, even in London itself—there have been times when judges have sought to restrain the publication of pending trials—when they have assumed a censorship over the press, and by fines and imprisonment endeavoured to compel journalists to obey capricious and despotic ordinances. Presidents of Courts-Martial sought to act in the same dictatorial spirit towards the press; but they have abandoned the attempt ever since the year 1840, when, in the trial of Cardigan *v.* Reynolds, at Brighton, the London journals treated the prohibition of the president against publication as a nullity.

The appearance of reporters in courts of justice was long discountenanced, although their reporting was not prohibited. A curious history could be told of the efforts made by those in office to render reporting a difficulty, and, in some cases, an impossibility. The brave men who, in their several localities, fought at their own risk, for the rights of the public, remain unknown, because no one has taken the trouble to ascertain how very few years have passed away since "accommodation" was, by order of the judges and high sheriffs, "made for the newspaper reporters."

The rights of the press are now universally acknowledged; but the memory of the members of the press, by whom they were vindicated in England, Scotland, and Ireland, seems destined to be consigned to a speedy and ever-enduring oblivion.

#### TIGER BAY.

Most readers of the metropolitan police reports have recently become aware of the existence at the eastern end of London of a locality which has obtained the somewhat ferocious sounding title of Tiger Bay; and so far as character is concerned, never, perhaps, was a name more rightly bestowed, because the habits and *morale* of the inhabitants of the street—for Tiger Bay is a simple street—partake in a great degree of the wild desperation and savage cunning with which so many of our popular writers of natural histories love to endow the dreaded "lord of Bengal." It was only a few days since that a powerful and hardened ruffian was brought before the magistrates at the Thames Police Court on a charge of violently attacking a police constable, and inflicting such serious injuries on him that the officer will, in all probability, be maimed for the remainder of his life. The fellow was committed for trial; but such is the terror occasioned by the continual repetition of these attacks, that the members of the police force—despite their undoubted courage—are reluctant to venture singly in such a dangerous neighbourhood; and it would appear that unless some decisive measures are immediately taken by the metropolitan police authorities, the locality will soon become a kind of modern Alsacia, where the most dangerous members of our criminal population may find an unmolested refuge.

The readers of THE LONDON REVIEW may be curious to learn something respecting this dreaded "Tiger-bay," and a few particulars relating to it may not prove uninteresting. Let us, for a moment, imagine ourselves in the classic regions of Whitechapel, and suppose that, on reaching the parish church, we turn suddenly to the right, into a narrow thoroughfare known as Church-lane, one half of which is narrower still, so that the entire lane somewhat resembles a bottle. Presently we find ourselves in the broad and spacious roadway devoted to dockyard traffic, and most appropriately termed the Commercial-road. There is not a more interesting sight to the stranger than the crowded arteries of our modern Babel, especially on a Saturday evening, when the numerous lights displayed by the street-stalls, the gas-illuminated windows of the countless shops, and the flickering rays of the street lamps combine to produce a striking picture which would have defied the efforts of a Rembrandt to produce on canvas.

The Commercial-road forms no exception to the rule, but by reason of the great width of the roadway the effect is perhaps less marked than it would otherwise be. In the day-time the scene is more subdued, and is only rendered peculiar by the continual passing to and fro of huge green-painted caravans, which give rise to a suspicion that the spirited proprietors of Wombwell's menagerie have commenced commercial dealings in the wholesale line; but which, in fact, are merely store-waggons conveying goods, on which the excise duties have not been paid, from the East-India Docks to the bonded warehouses in the city.

Halfway between Church-lane and Cannon-street-road is a quiet respectable-looking street, which leads us in a few minutes to the redoubtable "Tiger Bay" of the police courts. We fear that the lovers of the adventures of Jack Sheppard, Claude Duval, and other criminal celebrities, will be rather disappointed to learn that Frederick-street, alias "Tiger Bay," is an extremely commonplace thoroughfare, possessing few of the external characteristics peculiar to the haunts of profligacy and crime. There is nothing approaching the romantic or the picturesque about it; neither does it possess any of the hideous poverty and squalor of St. Giles's, the Irish beggardom of Westminster, the thievish vagabondage of Holborn, or the cunning-faced crime of Whitechapel. There are no dark, lonely, mysterious lanes; no low, dismal, foul-looking courts or blind alleys, down which the painted syrens of the street decoy their unwary victims for the purposes of plunder. No "Tiger Bay" is simply a once reputable street, which has by some means or another fallen into the tenancy of a number of low brothel-keepers, who harbour several of the worst characters of both sexes, and who are rapidly deteriorating the morals and feelings of the surrounding neighbourhood.

Several years ago this state of things was undreamed of, but by a process, which landlords at the East-end are familiar with, a few loose characters took up their abode in the street, and attracted others, who usurped the places of the decent hard working people that formerly lived there, and thus, step by step, the reputation of the locality was degraded, until at last it obtained its present unenviable sobriquet. Imagine a street of about forty houses, say twenty on each side, at the doors of which are sitting, lolling, or standing dirty, brazen-faced women, with their dishevelled hair hanging about their shoulders, and who are engaged in converse, oftentimes in language unfit for "ears polite," with others of their own sex who are leaning, in a state of semi-nudity, out of the dingy uncleaned windows. Here and there may be seen the tall ungainly form of one of their bullies, stolidly smoking a short dirty pipe; or uttering fierce imprecations on some poor unfortunate who has given him her last coin for the purpose of procuring "a pint." A shoal of ragged, stockingless, precocious urchins are playing amid the mud and filth

of the gutter, or forming a "thief school," under the patronage of approving nods from grim featured, sallow-cheeked men, whose hair betrays evidences of having been lately cut at the national expense.

Towards nightfall the scene changes. The pale, haggard-faced women, with their ragged dirty dresses, uncombed hair, and slatternly appearance, disappear; and in their stead may be seen the gaudily attired, painted, and smirking damsels of the streets, who are about to roam forth in search of prey. A few prefer the Commercial-road, where large concert-rooms attract many a tradesman's apprentice or shopman into their dangerous and crime-loving company; whilst the majority depart for Ratcliff-highway and its approaches, in the hope of securing JACK. Poor Jack! he is looked on as the natural victim of these harpies, and every night "Tiger Bay" resounds with the stentorian choruses of drink-muddled sailors, who, yielding to the snake-like fascinations of their tempters, are parting with their senses and money at the same time. But the sailors are not always to be duped, for there are keen-witted men on sea as well as land, and sometimes the blandishments of the fair ones fail of their intended effect, and the sailor has apparently a chance of getting off scot-free. But, no; the bullies are called in, there is a scuffle, curses, cries, groans, and screams; bottles are flung about, windows smashed, tables overturned, lights trodden under foot, chairs dashed aside, and the fire-irons seized as weapons in the murderous conflict just commenced. The noise increases, for rather than be balked of their revenge, the disappointed and infuriated creatures strive to inflict deadly injuries on Jack, who defends himself in rough sailor-like style, until the confusion and uproar occasion the police to interfere, and prevent further renewals of the contest by taking the principal actors into custody, and furnishing another case for reporters to comment on.

It is absolutely impossible for anyone, who has not actually witnessed these scenes, to form any idea of the fearful amount of vice, depravity, and profligate conduct which exist in such hotbeds of crime as "Tiger Bay," and which is slowly but surely penetrating into the comparatively unpolluted, industrial life existing around them. It is to be hoped that for the sake of the working man himself, for the sake of his virtuous and industrious wife, and for the sake of their innocent offspring, some active measures will be adopted to remove such scandals from amongst us. Dissipation, harlotry, and crime will always find a home for themselves, in the present constitution of society; but they can and they should be prevented from contaminating with their accursed presence the localities where hard-working labour has fixed its abode, and where the slow stealthy step of the thief and the drunken laugh of the prostitute were unknown, until the inhabitants found that the greed of house proprietors had allowed a hitherto respectable neighbourhood to be transformed into a vile and crime-reeking "TIGER BAY."

#### FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

PARIS.

WELL! our cousin of Sweden has "come and gone," and those around the Imperial Court believe he has taken kindly to the lessons and doctrines he has there heard, and that "United Scandinavia" has got a champion! One of the great plans of Louis Napoleon now is, to gather under the wings of France a collection of the navies of secondary Powers, that he may thus have the means of balancing the maritime supremacy of England.

How matters stand with Denmark, however, would seem to be problematical, and I am somewhat disposed to fancy that at this identical moment the principal bait held out to the Swedish King is merely Finland, which, it is thought, may be annexed by universal suffrage, Russia just now having somewhat displeased the great Apostle of Annexation.

As to the affairs of Rome, no one on earth, and least of all those whose business it is to know all about them, has the slightest idea how they will be brought to a termination. Thus much I happen to have from the very highest authority, namely, that up to within a very few days, Cardinal Antonelli has been perpetually taunting General de Goyon with the impossibility of the French troops leaving Rome. Whether he may be mistaken, and whether he may carry his assurance too far, and find himself in the wrong—those are questions time will solve; but, for the moment, his Eminence ventures upon much gentle railing with his protectors, and when M. de Goyon threatens that his master will withdraw the French army, the answer he gets is: "Withdraw your troops!—pray do so!—try to do it—pray do withdraw the French troops, if you can!" Now, I am not telling you this from hearsay; but from absolute and certain knowledge. I repeat it: I cannot possibly say what ultimate end may be achieved by this provoking attitude of the Cardinal, but that this really is his attitude towards the French commanding General at this moment, I am enabled to assure you.

The vexation felt at the conduct of the King of Prussia is intense; and no less a person than the Imperial Minister for Foreign Affairs himself has been employed to manifest it. The article of a few days back in the *Journal des Débats* was a slight proof of this. It positively issued from the bureaux of the Foreign Office. M. Thouvenel, you must remember, was, in his very early youth, a writer in the *Débats*, and has ever since kept up his connection with the great ex-Orleanist paper. His brother-in-law, M. Cuvillier-Fleury, late Secretary to H.R.H. the Due d'Anjou, is still one of the chief *rédacteurs* of the *Débats*, so that it is natural that M. Thouvenel should choose this medium of communication with the public.

When it became thoroughly well known that King William could not be got to the camp at Châlons, all attempt to be civil was cast aside, and "*les grands moyens*," i.e., the anger of the public press, was brought to bear. M. le Ministre got an article written, in which it was sought to show to Prussia the error of her ways, and frighten her by foreshadowings of her gloomy future if she would not consent to go northwards, leaving to "ideal" France the provinces of the Rhine. How far all this will be palatable to Prussia, or induce her to enter into "talks" with the Emperor upon the property of dividing her territory, remains to be seen. Meanwhile, an interview stands settled for the first days of October; and although the self-same princes who spoilt the Baden rendezvous will also be there, I believe there will be a conversation between the two principal personages.

This rage for private discussion upon questions of policy would be really almost akin to monomania in the present Emperor, if one did not reflect that

it forms part of the Bonapartist tradition, and that the first Emperor believed in it to an absolutely insane degree. Joseph le Maistre, in the recently published collection of his letters and despatches from St. Petersburg in 1812, inveighs against this practice of the old Napoleon with the utmost vehemence, saying that it saps and destroys the principle of all Government, unless, indeed, of an Oriental despotism ; and he positively, at the period at which he writes (in the very midst of the great war), finds traces of the "talks" held between Alexander and Napoleon years before, and of the impression left by them on the mind of the former.

A report is current here of several diplomatic changes, and, amongst others, of the plan (already much thought of) of sending a military embassy to Constantinople. It is rumoured that General Montauban is designed for the post in the Imperial mind, and it was supposed that he would before this have replaced M. Lavalette. But it would appear that the resolute bearing of the new Sultan has modified the schemes of the Tuilleries, and it is now opined that perhaps General Montauban might not produce the desired effect, and might fail to strike terror into the soul of the Padishah. The greater part of these combinations are connected with the impossible achievement of the Suez Canal, and no small amount of disappointment is felt here at the small likelihood which exists of coercing Abdul Aziz into any line of conduct he does not happen to approve.

I should say that since the failure of dreams long cherished became a matter of frequent recurrence in Louis Napoleon's life, no dream dispelled has been more bitter to him than that of the possible opening of the "Eastern question." His Imperial Majesty had *all but* decided (he never entirely does so) to commence proceedings in that direction, and every sign was there to show how easy it would probably be under the loose, untidy reign of the Sultan, Abdul Medjid, when suddenly Cæsar found himself face to face with quite a different sort of opponent, and, to use a vulgar phrase, he found he had "caught a Tartar." I doubt whether he has yet quite recovered from the shock ; and many who are living in his closest intimacy say he has never altogether regained his good humour since, but is subject to fits of impatience, which were previously very rare.

A fact that we in England ought not to lose sight of is the undeniable increase of a warlike feeling here among the officers of the two services—the army and navy. There was, up to a couple of months back, no perceptible ardour in either for the chances of an armed contest ; but the case stands otherwise now, and it is a subject of general remark here how very warlike the tone has recently become.

#### REMINISCENCES OF THE SESSION.

BY THE SILENT MEMBER.

My recollections of the session of 1861 must be, in the main, personal rather than political. Upon the session as a whole, I feel inclined to say—*ce diner n'est que du réchauffé*. We were invited to a banquet of underdone dishes that had been served up before and were now warmed up again. What else was the Paper Duty Abolition Bill ? What the Bankruptcy Bill ? What the Italian policy of the Government ? What the £10 County Franchise Bill of Mr. Locke King ? What the £6 Borough Franchise of Mr. Baines ? Had not the abolition of the Paper Duty been well and sufficiently argued during the session of 1860 ? Might not the Bankruptcy Bill as well have been passed in that session ? If an actuary were asked to put a money value on our time, might it not possibly be found that it would have been cheaper and better to have raised the money preserved to the exchequer by the retention of the Paper Duty, in any form of loan or tax, rather than have occupied the half of one session in debating the abolition of the tax and the constitutional privileges of the Commons, and the half of the next session in discussing the same subject, and the propriety of inserting all the financial measures of the session in one bill ? I put out of view altogether the obstruction and uncertainty inflicted upon trade, and venture to ask whether it was worth while, in order to collect the Paper Duty for another year, to cause all this irritation, and to entail the loss of so many valuable evenings ? If, too, we had only accepted the Bankruptcy Bill of 1860 out of hand, after duly debating it as we did, should we not have done more wisely than to pass a measure which is not a Consolidation Bill, and which has been smitten at the top first, like the blasted elm that inspired poor Dean Swift with his melancholy presentiment ? As to Mr. Locke King and Mr. Edward Baines, I trust they have obtained no popularity out of doors for the *réchauffés* which they contributed to our parliamentary feast. Their enterprise was hopeless from the first, and could have no other effect than to "let down" the subject of Parliamentary Reform, and give occasion for the boast of Conservative re-action.

Thus wanting freshness, the Session languished. Our orators were, with few exceptions, below the occasion. The Paper-duty had been discounted, the Bankruptcy Bill had been discounted, Italy had been discounted, Savoy and Nice had been discounted,—everything had been discounted. The great speakers having to appear in these old worn-out subjects were in somewhat the same spirits as a party of ladies who, in hard times, might go to a *fête* in the gowns and bonnets of last year's fashions and materials. We were all below concert pitch. It has been said that eloquence is more in the audience than in the speaker ; and we were not screwed up, by any virulence of party spirit or prospect of change of Government, to that point of heat or degree of enthusiasm which is acted upon by the orator, but which, still more, re-acts upon him and kindles his best and freshest inspirations. The Radicals, before the session was many days old, learnt moderation and modesty. Several distinguished members of the Opposition cultivated a conscience. Lord Stanley and Sir Stafford Northcote voted against their party, and with the Chancellor of the Exchequer, in opposing Mr. Hubbard's Income-tax motion. Lord John Russell's noble defence of Italian freedom and independence gained for him the warm and generous approval of the bulk of the Conservatives. Mr. Walpole and Sir W. Heathcote separated themselves from their party on the constitutional question, and declared that the insertion of the main parts of the Budget in one bill effectually asserted the indisputable privileges of one House without giving just ground of offence to the other. The Galway contract rekindled the flame of party, and gave some life and animation to the final Paper-duty debate ; but twenty-four Conservatives absented themselves from the division, and the Government were saved.

Later still, Sir J. Pakington and Mr. Henley refused to endorse Mr. Disraeli's objections to the supplementary naval estimate for iron ships. Add, that a change of Government has on two or three occasions during the session been deprecated by the Earl of Derby,—who would not even divide the House of Lords against the Budget Bill,—and we have sufficient reasons for the inferiority of Parliamentary eloquence by comparison with the Budget, Commercial Treaty, and Reform Bill debates of the previous session.

Beginning with the leader of the House and head of the Government, our Noble Viscount shone more, according to his wont, in the latter months of the session than in its commencement. He left Lord John Russell, who caught something of his jaunty air, to taunt Mr. Bright and the Radical M.P.'s with the indifference of the public on the subject of Parliamentary Reform. Our Noble Viscount's personal popularity did not appear to suffer, in the smallest degree, from the refusal of his Cabinet to introduce another Reform Bill. Mr. Ayrton delivered a philippic against the Government on the introduction of the Appropriation of Seats Bill, and prophesied that "the Ministry would sink down step by step until they slipped out of office altogether, objects of universal contempt and universal scorn"—a prediction which the events of the session have failed to realize. Our Noble Viscount made a home appeal to the conscience of hon. members to say whether the Government ought to have called on the House to spend so many hours as had been devoted in the previous year, "not in discussing, but in evading and shelving the Reform Bill—shelved," he added, "as much by the professed friends of Reform as by its opponents." The Opposition laughed, and cried "hear, hear," at his candour ; but no one, either above or below the Ministerial gangway, rose to gainsay the justice of the rebuke. On the introduction of Locke King's County Franchise Bill, and Mr. Baines's Borough Franchise Bill, he again bantered the Liberals below the gangway upon being *participes criminis* in the assassination of the Government Reform Bill of 1860. He did not object to the introduction of either of the bills for reducing the franchise, but he frankly said he did not think that either of them had a better chance of success than the Government measure of the previous session. He defended the somewhat belligerent character of the Navy Estimates of the year against Mr. Baxter and Mr. Lindsay with spirit, and declined to give his adhesion to their statements about the inactivity of the French dockyards. The subsequent observations of Admiral Elliott afterwards proved that the Government were better informed than the members for Montrose and Sunderland.

Mr. A. Mills' Select Committee on Colonial military expenditure was opposed by our Noble Viscount on the ground that it transferred the duties and functions of the executive to the House of Commons. Some significant indications, however, of the temper of the House warning him that the Government would be left in a minority, he put this grave constitutional objection into his pocket, amid the laughter of the Opposition. On the very same night he divided the House against Sir J. Elphinstone's motion for inquiry into the grievances of some ill-used naval officers, and was beaten—two virtual defeats within a few hours. A little later he persuaded the House to rescind this vote on the ground that an inquiry into the pay, promotion, and retirement of officers of the navy trenched upon the functions of the executive, and was calculated to unsettle the minds of officers of all grades.

In the debate on Mr. Dunlop's motion for a Committee to consider the Afghanistan papers, he was charged by Mr. Bright with suffering somewhat from the passion of anger. His countenance and language (for the first and only time this session) gave some colour to the charge, which, indeed, he did not deny, but exclaimed, "Not much!" His excuse was that accusations of falsehood, perjury, wilful mutilation of public documents, had been rather freely levelled against the Ministers, who were responsible for the calamitous events of 1839, of whom he was one.

A little break in his Parliamentary session was caused by his acceptance of the Lord Wardenship of the Cinque Ports. A new writ for Tiverton was issued on the 24th March, and a delay of a month in taking the oaths and his seat after his re-election caused some rumours to be current as to the severity of an attack of gout with which he was said to be visited. It happened from this cause that he was not present in the House when the Chancellor of the Exchequer developed his Budget of 1861. On the 2nd May he defended Mr. Gladstone against the attacks of Mr. Disraeli. He was somewhat oppressed by the boisterous spirits of his opponents, and was tame, brief, and rather below the occasion. But the Government obtained a majority of eighteen in favour of Paper Duty abolition against Tea Duty remission. His turn for triumph arrived when, a few days afterwards, the Derbyites opposed the motion for receiving the report of the Committee on Ways and Means, and Lord R. Cecil charged the Chancellor of the Exchequer with conduct more like that of a country attorney than a statesman. A scene of great excitement ensued. Our Noble Viscount received a favourable report from his whipper-in, taunted the Opposition with talking against time on Irish Tramways, and persisted in dividing the House against the adjournment. He was rewarded by a majority of 62.

Our Noble Viscount backed up Lord C. Paget in the Sir Baldwin Walker business with his usual vivacity, but one of his happiest speeches was his answer to Mr. Horsman's spiteful and revengeful rhetoric, in which he reminded the right hon. gentleman of the existence of the elector of Stroud, and polished him off in the best style of Parliamentary banter. He kept the House in a roar, and spoke with a play of humour, and vigour, and robustness of voice and intellect quite extraordinary in a man of his years.

When the House went into Committee on the Budget Bill, the episode of the Galway contract had intervened. The Irish members were at a boiling point of indignation and mutiny. Father Daly and Archbishop Cullen occupied, perhaps by accident, conspicuous places on the Peers' benches. Everything denoted a trial of strength, an opposition victory, and a dissolution of Parliament. When the Treasury whip put up a supporter to move the adjournment of the debate, and our Noble Viscount heard his own complaint of needless delays and adjournments retorted upon him, he could say nothing but that the subject was so important that it was very desirable it should be fully discussed. A shout of derisive laughter arose from the crowded Opposition benches. They wanted to go into the Lobby to beat the Government on the question of adjournment, but were restrained by Mr. Disraeli, who contented himself with girding at the head of the Government for his new-born advocacy of free discussion.

But only young generals are twitted into giving battle against their better

judgment. Our Noble Viscount thought it better to be taunted than to be beaten. The Government were saved by his coolness and wisdom. Time was gained. The Opposition had to look a contested election steadily in the face. The Protestant feeling and good sense of some Conservative members prevailed. They anxiously pondered on the price to be paid by Lord Derby for the political support of Archbishop Cullen and the Irish priests. The division took place after a felicitous speech by our Noble Viscount, who convulsed the House by his recital of his interview with Father Daly. The Irish M.P.'s thought that his representation of what took place conveyed a reflection upon their honour, and we had one or two discussions afterwards on the subject, in which he insisted upon the accuracy of his version of the conversation. Lord Derby, at a meeting of his followers, deprecated any attempt to displace the Government this session, while proclaiming his power and forbearance. Thus did our Noble Viscount skilfully steer his ship into the safe and pleasant harbour of the recess.

In the various debates on the Fortification Votes, the Naval Defences, the Iron-plated Ships, and the French Navy, his speeches have been models of conciseness and good sense, nor have they been wanting even in technical details and strategic knowledge. He was equally at home on a different subject,—the Battle of the Styles,—when he maintained the superiority of Italian over Gothic architecture for the new public offices, in a speech of mingled pleasantry and argument, in which he sagaciously availed himself of the plea of economy to gain the votes of those who had little architectural taste and knowledge. Of funeral orations he delivered two,—one on the death of the Duchess of Kent, and the other on the untimely decease of the great minister, Cavour. Both were good,—the last a model for such compositions, terse, and yet elegant in style, abounding in consolatory and ennobling reflections, just to the departed statesman, yet full of hope and confidence in the future of Italy. The leader of a popular assembly must make quick transitions from "grave to gay, from lively to severe;" and I must therefore find a line for his witty repartees and smart exchange of hits with Bernal Osborne, in which our Noble Viscount more than held his ground, and, indeed, turned the laugh against the younger and *tant soit peu* turbulent humorist.

The session just terminated may not have made a heavy strain on the health and powers of our Noble Viscount; but he has gone through it with unclouded faculties and undiminished physical vigour. He seems to thrive on a very little modicum of sleep; but the truth is, that by the time the House rises at two or three o'clock a.m., he has got through half his night's rest. In this judicious interposition and intermixture of "rosy slumbers" with pointed and facetious speeches he is unrivalled. The temper of the House during the session just ended has been eminently Conservative and moderate; and the recent Ministerial promotions seem to evince a desire on his part to disarm party feeling on the Derbyite benches by strengthening that section of the Cabinet which the Opposition leader declared to be Conservative and all but unexceptionable. To many Opposition members our Noble Viscount's seems the best kind of English Conservatism. They admire his robust English feeling and English tastes, and if he would consent to do nothing but mend our laws and our highways, and leave Parliamentary Reform and party measures to those who shall come after him, they would willingly see him England's First Minister until the day of his death.

But the "young ambitions" of a party are not to be influenced by such considerations. The party that really governs likes to taste the sweets of office and patronage. Rumours have, indeed, been current at various moments of the session that our Noble Viscount is not disinclined to invite some moderate Derbyites to join his administration. It may be that, in such case, he might for a time easily hold his own against the Bright and Gladstone section of the House. But these stories want confirmation, and his political friends hope and believe that he will do nothing to break up the Liberal party, and send the representatives of the populous constituencies into the lobby against his Government.

Whatever may betide during the recess, and whatever changing fortunes may be in store for the next session, we shall all hope that our Noble Viscount may meet Parliament in renewed health and renovated spirits. England need not be ashamed to be represented by a minister who is at home the type of moderation, and abroad of progress and stability.

As history is most agreeably learned through the medium of biographical memoirs, so this personal narrative may stand in the place of a more formal and general review of the session, which indeed has already claimed an abler and more competent pen. The leaders of other parties and sections may, however, fairly claim a share in the history of the session, and a brief sketch of their "exits and their entrances" may serve to illustrate the present position and prospects of political parties.

#### SEA-FISHING AS AN AMUSEMENT.

THE great charm of sea-angling lies in its simplicity, and the readiness with which it can be engaged in, together with the comparatively homely and inexpensive nature of the instruments required. A party living at the sea-side can either fish off the rocks, or hire a boat, and purchase, or obtain the loan (for a slight consideration) of such simple tackle as is necessary; though it must not be too simple, for even sea-fish will not stand the insult of supposing they can be caught as a matter of course, with anything; and as the larger kinds of hooks are often enough scarce at mere fishing villages, it is better to carry a few to the scene of action.

"What sport does the sea afford?" will most likely be the first question put by those who are unacquainted with sea-angling. We answer, anything and everything in the shape of fish or sea monster, from a sprat to a whale. This is literally true. It is not an unfrequent occurrence for tourists in Orkney, or other places in Scotland, to assist at a whale battue; and some readers of the *Review* may remember a very graphic description of an Orcadian whale hunt, given in *Blackwood's Magazine* a few years ago, by Professor Aytoun, who is Sheriff of Orkney. The kind of sea-fish, however, that are most frequently taken by the angler, both on the coasts of England and Scotland, are the whiting, an abundant and delicate fish, the common

cod, the beautiful poor or power cod, and the mackerel; there is also the abundant coal-fish, or sea-salmon, as we call it, from its handsome shape. This fish is taken in amazing quantities, and in all its stages of growth. It is known by various names, such as Sillock, Pillock, Cudden, Poddly, &c.; indeed most of our fishes have different names in different localities; but we shall keep to the proper name so as to avoid mistakes. The merest children are able, by means of the roughest machinery, to catch any quantity of young coal-fish; they can be taken in our harbours, and at the sea-end of our piers and landing places. The whiting is also very plentiful, as indeed are most of the Gadidae. It feeds voraciously, and will seize upon anything in the shape of bait; four full-grown pilchards have been taken before now from the stomach of a four-pound fish. Whiting can be caught at all periods of the year, but it is of course most plentiful in the breeding season, when it approaches the shore for the purpose of depositing its spawn, that is, in January and February. The common cod-fish is found on all parts of our coast; formerly the Dogger Bank or the Orkneys were the great seats of the fishery, and vessels with wells in them were employed (and are still employed) to bring the living fish to the market. Supplies are now obtained nearer home; and sea-anglers, if they hit on a good locality, are certain to make a heavy basket!

The pollack, or as it is called in Scotland, lythe, also affords capital sport; and the mackerel-herring and conger-eel can also be taken in considerable quantities. We can strongly recommend the lythe fishing to gentlemen who are *blast* of salmon or pike, or who do not find excitement even among the birds of lone St. Kilda. Then there is the extensive family of the flat fish, embracing brill, plaice, flounders, soles, and turbot. This latter is quite a classic fish, and has long been an object of worship among gastronomists; it has been known to attain an enormous size; upon one occasion an individual, which measured six feet across, and weighed one hundred and ninety pounds, was caught near Whitby. The usual mode of capturing flat fish is by means of the trawl-net, but many varieties of them may be caught with a hand-line. A day's sea-angling will be chequered by many little adven-

tures. There are various minor monsters of the deep that vary the monotony of the day, by occasionally devouring the bait. A tadpole fish (Fig. 1) may be hooked, or the angler may have a visit from a hammer-headed shark or a pile-fish, which adds greatly to the excitement; and if "the dogs" should be at all plentiful, it is a chance if a single fish be got out of the sea in its integrity; so voracious are these species of the *squalidae*, that we have often enough pulled a mere skeleton into the boat, instead of a

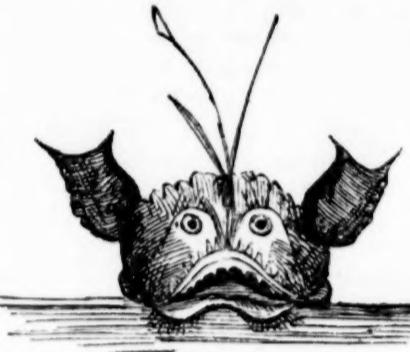


Fig. 1.—The Tadpole Fish.

plump cod of ten or twelve pounds weight.

We shall now say a few words about the machinery of capture. The tackle in use for handline sea-fishing is much the same everywhere, and that which we describe will suit almost any locality. It consists of a frame of four pieces of wood-work, about

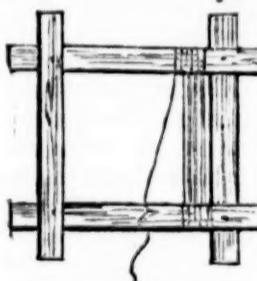


Fig. 2.—Handline Frame.

are attached. Sometimes a third hook is affixed to an outrigger, about two feet above the other hooks. The length of the cords to which the lower hooks are attached, should be such as to allow them to hang about six inches higher than the bottom of the sinker (Fig. 3). In some parts of the western Highlands a rod, consisting of thin fir rod, is used, but from the length of line required it is rather a clumsy instrument, as after the fish has been struck the rod has to be laid down in the boat, and the line to be hauled in by hand.

As to bait it is quite impossible to lay down any strict rule. The bait which is the favourite in one bay or bank is scouted by the fishes of other localities. At times almost anything will do—numbers of mackerel have been taken with a little bit of red cloth attached to the hook,—on certain occasions the fish are so voracious that they will swallow the naked iron! On the English coasts and among the western islands of Scotland the most deadly bait that we have used is boiled limpets, which require to be partially chewed by the fisher before placing them on the hooks; in other places mussels are the favourites, and in others the worms procured among the mud of the shore. The limpet has this one advantage, that it is easily fixed on the hook and keeps its hold tenaciously. A very excellent bait for the larger kinds of fish is the soft parts of the body of small crabs, which are gathered for that purpose at low tide under the stones; a good place for procuring them is a mussel bed. The best time for fishing is immediately before ebb or flow. The hooks being baited the line is run over the side of the boat until the lead touches the bottom, when it is drawn up a little, so as to keep the baits out of reach of the crabs, who gnaw and destroy both bait and tackle. The line is held firmly and lightly outside the boat, the other hand inside the boat also having a grip of the line. The moment a fish is felt to strike the line is jerked down by the hand inside, thus bringing it sharply across the gunwale and fixing the hook. A little experience will soon enable the angler to determine the weight of the fish, and according as it is light or heavy must he quickly or slowly haul in his line. When the fish reaches the surface he should, if practicable, seize it with his hand, as it is apt on

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Lobsters a mussels can b Shrimps can

feeling itself out of water to wriggle off. A landing clip or gaff, such as is used in salmon fishing, is useful, as, in the event of hooking a conger or a ray, there is much difficulty and even some danger.

In fishing for lythe—the most exciting of all sea angling—a very strong cord is used, on which, in order to prevent the fouling of the line, one or two stout swivels are attached. The hooks also cannot be too strong; those used for cod or ling fishing are very suitable. (Fig. 4.) The baits in general use are the body of a small eel, about half a foot in length, skinned, and tied to the shaft; or a strip of red cloth, or a red or white feather similarly attached. A piece of lead is fixed on the line at a short distance above the hook.

The boat must be rowed or sailed at a moderate rate, and from five or ten fathoms of the line allowed to troll behind. The boat end of the line should be turned once or twice round the arm, and held tightly in the hand; if the line were fastened to the boat, there is every chance that a large lythe—and they are frequently caught upwards of thirty pounds weight—would snap the tackle. The fish, when hooked, gives considerable play, and rather strongly objects to being lifted into the boat. The clip or gaff is in this case always necessary. In fishing for lythe, mackerel and dog-fish are not unfrequently caught. The best place for prosecuting this sport is in the neighbourhood of a rocky shore; and the best times of the day are the early morning or evening. This fish will also take readily during any period of a dull, but not gloomy day.

The most amusing kind of sea-angling is fly-fishing for small lythe and saithe (coal-fish); the tackle is exceedingly simple. A rod consisting of a pliant branch about eight feet in length; a line of light cord of the same length, and a small hook roughly busked with a small white, red, or black feather; the fly is dragged on the surface as the boat is rowed along, and the moment the fish is struck it is swung into the boat. The fry of the lythe and saithe may also be fished for from rocks and pier-heads, using the same tackle. A very ingenious plan for securing a number of these little fish is carried on in the Firth of Clyde and elsewhere.

A boat similar in shape to a salmon coble, with a crew of two, one to row and one to fish, goes out along the shore in the evening, when the sea is perfectly calm or nearly so. (Fig. 5.) The fisher has charge of half-a-dozen rods or more, similar to the one already mentioned. These rods project across the square stern of the boat, and their near ends are inserted into the interstices of a seat of wattled boughs, on which the fisher sits not steadily, but, bumping gently up and down, communicates a trembling motion to the flies. The course of the coble is always close in shore, and, if the fish are taking well, the same ground is fished over many times during the course of the evening.

Of this kind of sea angling, Mr. Colquhoun, author of "The Moor and the Loch," says:—

"Saithe take best in the morning and evening, and a slight breeze is rather an advantage; although the fly is sometimes sunk with lead, it is more often fished with at the top. You may begin at any state of the tide, and row over all the sunk banks and places where the fish frequent, at a slow rate. When a small fish is hooked pull in at once, and out with the rod again as fast as possible. When you hook a large fish, try to prevent it getting down, or you may be obliged to throw the rod overboard, in case the lythe should break away; but if you can manage to swing it about at the top for a short time, it will soon be unable to offer any resistance. Trolling with the white feather has this recommendation, that it may be enjoyed by an invalid or party of ladies; and certainly a more delightful way of spending the cool of a summer evening cannot be imagined, rowing slowly along romantic shores, hearing the distant gurgle of the dwindled mountain-brook in its steep descent, and ever and anon passing the blue curling smoke of a shepherd's or fisherman's grass-topped hut upon the banks."

As to set-line fishing, it can only be practised in places where the tide recedes to a considerable distance. The cord used is of no defined length, and at certain distances along its entire extent are affixed corks to prevent the hooks sinking in the sand or mud. The shore-end is generally anchored to a stone, and the further end fixed to the top of a stout staff firmly fixed in the beach, and generally attached also to a stone to prevent it drifting ashore in the event of being loosened from its socket. From the staff almost to the shore, hooks are fixed along the line at distances of a yard. The hooks are baited at low tide, and on the return of next low tide the line is examined. This is neither a satisfactory nor sure method of fishing, as many of the fish wriggle themselves free, and clear the hook of the bait, and many, after being caught, fall a prey to dog-fish, &c., so that the disappointed fisher, on examining his line, too often finds a row of baitless hooks, alternating with the half-devoured bodies of haddock, flounders, saithe, and other shore-fishes.

We may just name another mode of obtaining sport, which is by spearing flat fish, such as flounders, dab, plaice, &c. No rule can be laid down on this method of fishing. It has been carried on successfully by means of a common pitchfork, but some gentlemen go the length of having fine spears made for the purpose, very long and with very sharp prongs; others, again, use a three-pronged farm-yard "grape," which has been known to do as much real work as more elaborate utensils contrived for the purpose, of one of which we present a drawing (Fig. 6). The simplest directions we can give to those who try this style of fishing, is just to spear all the fish they can see, but the general plan is to stab in the dark with the kind of instrument we have delineated. At the mouths of most of the large English rivers there is usually abundance of all the minor kinds of flat fish.

Lobsters and crabs can be taken at certain rocky places of the coast; mussels can be picked from the rocks, and cockles can be dug for in the sand. Shrimps can also be taken, and various other wonders of the sea and its

shores may be picked up. After a storm a great number of curious fishes and shells may be picked up, and some of these are very valuable as specimens of natural history. The apparatus for capturing lobsters and crabs

is like a cage, and is generally made of wicker work, with an aperture at the top or the side for the animal to enter by; it can be baited with any sort of garbage that is at hand. Having been so baited, the lobster pot is sunk into the water, and left for a season, till tempted by the mess

within, the animal enters and is caged (Fig. 7.) Those who would induce crabs to enter their pots, must set them with fresh bait; lobsters, on the other hand, will look at nothing but garbages. Very frequently rock-cod, saithe, and other fish, are found to have entered the pots, intent both on foul and fresh food. Shell-fish for bait can be taken by means of a wooden box or old wicker basket sunk near a rocky place, and filled with garbage of some kind; the whelks and small crabs are sure to patronize the mass extensively, and can thus be obtained at convenience. It is impossible to tell in the limits of a brief paper one-half of the fishing wonders that can be accomplished during a visit to the sea side. A visit to some quaint old fishing town on the recurrence of "the year's vacation sabbath," as some of our poets now call the annual month's holiday, might be made greatly productive of real knowledge; there are ten thousand wonders of the shore which can be studied, besides those laid down in books. (Fig. 8.)

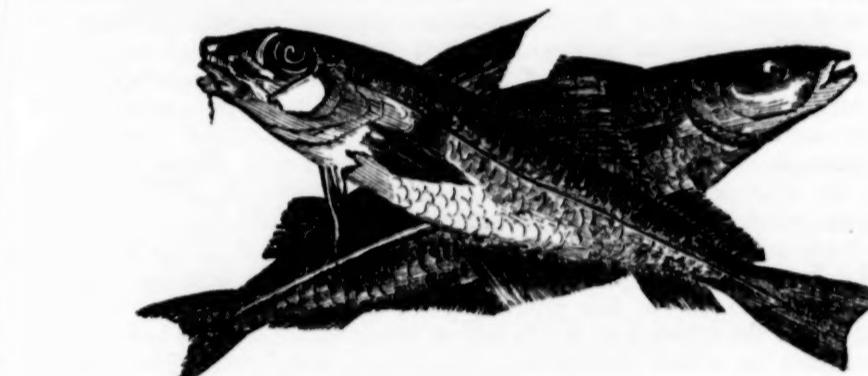


Fig. 4.—Lythe Tackle.



Fig. 5.—Fishing Coble.

and their near ends are inserted into the interstices of a seat of wattled boughs, on which the fisher sits not steadily, but, bumping gently up and down, communicates a trembling motion to the flies. The course of the coble is always close in shore, and, if the fish are taking well, the same ground is fished over many times during the course of the evening.

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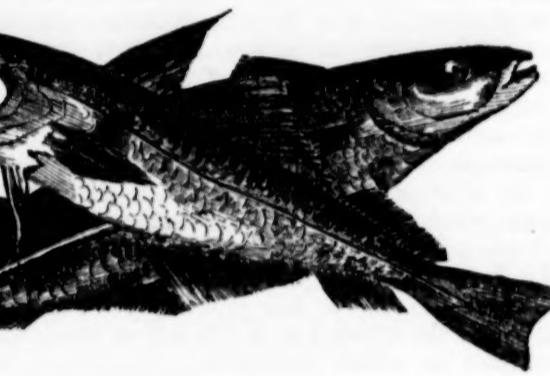


Fig. 8.—Prominent Members of the Gadidae Family.

We have avoided as much as possible the naming of localities, preferring to state the general practice. In all seaside towns and fishing villages, there are usually three or four old fishermen who will be glad to do little favours for the curious in fish lore—to hire out boats, give the use of tackle, and point out good localities in which to fish. For such as have a few weeks at their disposal, we would name the western sea-lochs of Scotland as affording superb sport in all the varieties of sea-angling. Fishes of all kinds, great and small, are to be found in abundant quantity, and there is likewise the still greater inducement of fine scenery, cheap lodgings, and moderate living expences. But the entire change of scene is the grand medicine; nothing would do an exhausted London or Manchester man more good than a month on Lochfyne, where he could not only angle in the great water for amusement, but also watch the commercial fishers, and enjoy the magnificent herring of that loch as a portion of his daily food.

#### WHAT IS COAL?

THAT everything that comes out of the earth is a *mineral* might very justly be maintained. But we could not argue with equal propriety that every limestone was chalk. No more are we justified in maintaining that everything extracted from the ground which will *burn* is *coal*. That a great and expensive trial, as the Torbane Hill case, so notorious a few years since, may perhaps again be repeated on the simple question of, What is coal? speaks volumes against the loose dictioin of geologists. It is not within the province of the chemist solely to determine such a question, although the evidence of his science is the most powerful support of the truth. What is coal? can only be answered by the reply to another question, How was coal made? The chemist can readily tell what coal *consists* of, but the geologist alone can say *how* it was formed.

In familiar language we may say *COAL* is a product of *covered up* vegetable matter, *retaining* its *bitumen*. When the bitumen drains away, or is driven off, be it by gravitation, solution, heat, or any other means, the solid carbon of the coal-bed from which it has been extracted remains undisturbed in its position in the earth. Anthracite is an example. Perhaps even, as the miners' driftway proceeds, this anthracite may be seen graduating into true *bituminous* coal—for *true* coal *must* be bituminous—at either end, and the whole may form one continuous stratum on the same horizon, unbroken from end to end. Still the part which has *lost* its bitumen is *not* the same as the parts in which it is retained. The fragments from the one burn differently from those from the other, their qualities and composition are not alike, and no one would say under such circumstances that anthracite and coal were the same thing. The pleader might argue that "anthracite is only coal which has lost its bitumen, and therefore it must be coal after all." Not so.

*Change* anything you will, and it is no longer the same. Pour sulphuric acid on chalk, the chalk does not go away, it remains where it was, it has not moved, but it is *changed*. It may be converted into gypsum, but it is no longer *chalk*. So when you have burned your coal in your fire, the undestroyed carbon remains. There is in it the fibrous vegetable structure to be seen, but the cinder is not *coal*. It has lost its bitumen and gases—it is no longer coal. So if from a coal-bed the bitumen drains away and floats to the top, forming an overspread layer of pure hard bitumen, that upper stratum of bitumen cannot be a *coal-seam*. Neither if the bitumen in draining away permeated and saturated the porous shales on which the coal-seam rested, would the *bituminous shale* thus formed (burning freely and full of gas) be a



Fig. 6.—A Fish Spear.

coal-bed, any more than if you saturated a brick with tar would *that be coal*.

As far as the meaning of the word coal itself is concerned, it may be said that it originally expressed charred wood or charcoal. It was, however, to the Newcastle coal, under the term of sea-coal, that it was first applied to fossil fuel in a general commercial sense. In charters granted by King Henry III. in 1299, privilege is given to certain parties to dig coals in Newcastle, and seven years after (1306) sea-coal was in such extensive use in London, that the Parliament complained to the king of the pollution of the atmosphere by its noxious vapours.

But without going into the etymology of the word or the history of coal, if the term *coal* be currently applied at the present day to any specific mineral substance, can we do better than to take, as identifying the substance meant, a mineral, from what is of all others the place for *coals*? Let us take a piece of true Newcastle coal as a type of what coal is. Undoubtedly every one will say it is bituminous coal, so then we argue coal must be bituminous. The pleader may remind you that there is Welsh *coal* (?) (which is *anthracite*) ; Devonshire *coal* (?) (which is *cilm*) ; Bovey *coal* (?) and Brown *coal* (?) (which are *lignites*). None of these are like Newcastle coal. Is anthracite *coal* because it comes from Wales? or *cilm* *coal* because no other sort of fossil fuel is dug in Devonshire? As well would Irish peat be *coal* because it is plentifully burnt in Ireland. Calling minerals by wrong names does not constitute them what you call them. A shale would not be a slate because you called it so.

How then was coal formed? The lands on which the coal-plants grew have passed away; no human eye will see their like again—no human eye saw *them*, no human hand touched a leaf of those gigantic trees and ferns. No limner's art ever pourtrayed those dense forests, nor surveyor's pen mapped down the broad estates on which they rankly grew. But certainly as the rays of light tell us of burning metals in the sun, so will the segregation of the earthy particles into which their long and creeping roots penetrated, the bedding of the grains of sand and clay which ultimately covered them up, tell us the story of the ancient physical conditions under which lifeless trunks, and leaves, and boughs became converted into COAL.

Low were those ancient lands, surrounded by broad marshy swamps, bounded by shallow estuaries, up which the salt sea-water gently rose and fell; one can scarcely speak of tide, so smoothly between the stems and undergrowth of water-loving tree-rushes, and through the tangled jungle sluggishly it flowed. Into the muddy waters of estuary and lake, and on the oozy ground around, the leaves fell year by year, as autumnal chills unclothed the trees. And the trees, too, in the roll of time, rotted at their bases by the watery medium in which they grew, toppled over, and became immersed in the boggy soil under a surface-coating of ferns and humbler plants, mixed with mosses; the rank herbage ever growing, rotting, and fermenting. Green and verdant at top, dark, black, heated, and distilling out from the decaying vegetable matter globules of bitumen below, to mingle with and penetrate the half-rotted, closely-matted mass of leaves and fibres, and of porous wood. Then this purifying mass was covered up with mud, so that neither gas escaped nor bitumen floated away. Thus was the coal-seam formed. It was not open to the day until it had dried into turf or rotted into soil. But it was covered up at a certain stage of its elaboration, and so preserved for human use.

It may have completed in the earth the process of its conversion into coal, but it was originally the produce of the *débris* of a living vegetation buried under a covering of mud. The accumulation might have been long going on near the surface, new vegetable matter heaped up at top, new bitumen secreting below;—going on for ages before the mass was buried in. Covered in at last, stratum after stratum of mud and of sand are piled over it, the weight of the superincumbent materials press down the spongy fibrous upper part of the future coal-seam into the bituminous lower portion, the semifluid bitumen is squeezed upwards amongst the compressed fibres and forced into the pores of the wood, the thickness of the vegetable bed is reduced, and it becomes an almost solid mass of *wood and vegetable fibre impregnated with the bitumen distilled from itself*. If it had parted with its gases and bitumen before it had been covered in, it might have become fossil peat. But coal the produce never would have been. Briefly, then, such was the origin of coal. This view of the matter excludes at once the anthracites from any right to the term of coal. Next, to dispose of the lignites. Lignites may or may not at some future period—ages to come—be converted into coal. They are not coal yet; they are still ligneous. The woody structure is so well preserved in the brown coal of Switzerland and Germany, that in some places it is used for rafters, beams, and other building-purposes. The stages of elaboration are not yet complete, which are requisite for the production of coal. It is the babe, not the man. Anthracite has lost its bitumen. It is the corpse. It might have been coal once, it is less now. Shale is the earth on which the corpse was laid. It may be saturated with its blood, but it is not the body.

Cannel-coal means "candle" coal. When the workmen cut this mineral into long and narrow strips, and light them, they burn like candles—hence the term "candle," or, shortly, cannel-coal. The affix "coal" does not absolutely mean that the substance is *coal*. It was added by miners who called it coal as they would any other black bituminous substance which they were in the habit of digging from the earth. But is cannel—"coal" *coal* at all?

If, then, bitumen, whether pressed out of a coal-seam formed or forming, or issuing from one by its lighter gravity, its liquidity, or from any other cause whatever, settles on the top of that coal-seam, and hardening there, forms a compact bed, can that bitumen correctly be termed coal? Assuredly not. But all this shows how careless and meaningless has been the use of the word. In the Museum of Practical Geology, in Jermyn-street, there are specimens of ozokerite or mineral pitch, from the sandstones of the Edinburgh coal-measures, and samples of the candles made of it, and commonly used in the mines. Why not call ozokerite "candle-coal"? Why has it not been so called? It is true it is in some localities soft, for the peasants of Moldavia employ it for greasing their cart-wheels; but the reason why the Scotch ozokerite and the hatchettine, or mineral tallow, of South Wales have escaped the term would seem to be because they are not as "black as coal."

In the same collection at Jermyn-street, the Torbane Hill mineral is put with the cannel-coals, and labelled "The so-called Boghead Cannel-coal from Torbane Hill, Edinburgh." Behind it are two specimens, one of black

and one of brown Pirnie cannel-coal, and beside it a specimen of cannel-coal and bituminous coal in contact, from Ince Hall colliery in Lancashire. In this specimen the cannel-coal is superposed on the common coal, and the distinct line of separation, and the marked differences of appearance between the two minerals, is evident to the most casual observer. The bituminous portion has a lustrous glance, and exhibits that shattery and divisional appearance so familiarly seen in the coal-scuttles by our firesides. The "cannel-coal," on the contrary, is solid, free from cracks, heavy, dull, and lustreless. The "Boghead-coal," or Torbane Hill mineral, is still more lustreless, and apparently closely resembles some of the darker and more bituminous portions of the bituminous marl from New South Wales, or the bituminous shale from Kimmeridge in Dorsetshire, rings of which were used for *money* in ancient times, while the shale is now made to yield a richer revenue in the shape of 9,050 cubic feet of gas per ton. In the same collection are specimens of asphalte or bitumen from the pitch-lake of Trinidad. We have only to fancy such a substance slightly mixed with earthy matter, and the result would be a mineral very like indeed to that of Torbane Hill. There are also samples of asphalte (bitumen) from the Cambrian schists near Shrewsbury, and of elaterite or elastic bitumen, from Castleton, in Derbyshire. Are not all these exempted from the term of *coals* merely because they differ in colour or consistency? They are as much coal as cannel-coal, or, rather, cannel-coal is no more *coal* than they.

Suppose the Torbane Hill district to have been a *muddy* lake, from which bitumen rose, and floated on the surface as it does now on the Lake of Trinidad, and that the earthy matter of the muddy water mingled with the bitumen as it dried and hardened, would not such a mineral be identical with that there has been the great lawsuit about?

Has it been thus with it? And has not such, or somewhat such, been the origin of the famous Torbane Hill mineral? Circumscribed as the deposit is in geographical extent to some two miles in one direction, and some three in the other, is not the size of its area consistent with this idea? What, then, are its conditions in the earth? Coal, we know, always has an underclay or subsoil on which the forests and jungles of coal-forming plants had growth. It always has an over-clay or roof by which the coal-bed was covered in. Is it so with the bituminous mineral of Torbane Hill? Below that is a seam of coal resting on shale or under-clay, and over this coal-seam is a "fire-clay" roof. Then comes a very thin seam—plate, one might call it—of ironstone. No

plants are likely to have grown in *that*; but such ochreous, ferruginous coatings are commonly thrown down by stagnant waters. Now comes the thick band—2 feet thick—of Torbane Hill mineral. Over it is another layer, 2 inches thick, of iron balls or nodules; then strata of clay and sand. There is nothing here which accords with our ideas of coal. No thick subsoil for the plants to grow in, no roof of over-clay to cover in their rotting leaves and carcases. But there is something in the arrangement of these strata which would indicate the oozing out of bitumen. Whatever the Torbane Hill mineral is, it certainly is not coal. It may be shale im-

pregnated to the fullest conceivable extent, or it may be slightly muddy bitumen. Its history, whenever it is told, will not be the history of a coal-seam. Coal contains the evidence of its forest-birth in its carbon—its *ash*. Burn the mineral from Torbane Hill, and a little earth may be left, but no vegetable ash. Anthracite is natural coke; it leaves an ash in which vegetable structure is distinctly evident. In lignite-ash the vegetable structure remains. So from every substance that has been, or will be *coal*, there will be, after burning, left an ash, proving its vegetable foundation. Coke comes from coal; it is the charcoal of fossil vegetation. Coke is the test of coal, for it proves the substance by its own results to be fossil vegetation.

#### POPULAR SCIENCE.

##### GROUND-BEETLES.

THE ground-beetles (*Geodephaga*) form a very numerous section of the beetle tribe (*Coleoptera* of Linnaeus), and exhibit a great variety of size and colour, although, in the latter, black is the prevailing hue. The majority of the species run very quickly, as might be inferred from the length of their legs; they are also, for the most part, furnished with wings, which they use for their business or their pleasure. Some species may frequently be seen taking an airing when the sun shines, namely, the brilliant light infantry, *Cicindelæ*, the more sombre heavy dragoons *Carabi*, the metallic cuirassiers, *Pterostichæ* and *Amaræ*, and some of the minute but active sharpshooters, *Bembidii*; but the greater number lie in ambush during the day, and go marauding at night. They are all carnivorous, preying upon worms, caterpillars, or any insect soft enough for them to bite, and that one must have a stout covering indeed that could resist the powerful leverage of their jaws. Nothing alive comes amiss to them; and if two or three of them are put together into a bottle, they will fight like Yankees are said to do with bowie knives and revolvers, mangling each other fearfully. They are called "ground-beetles" because, as a rule, they all live upon the ground; but occasionally the collector beats one from a bush or tree into which it had climbed in quest of a sweet morsel in larva shape; and one species, *Colosoma inquisitor*, every spring aspires beyond the grovelling habits of his family, and raises himself to a position among the boughs of the oaks, where he finds himself in a region of plenty, abounding with caterpillars which feed only upon the leaves of the oaks, and which, therefore, he could obtain in no other way than by mounting the trees. Curiously enough, considering

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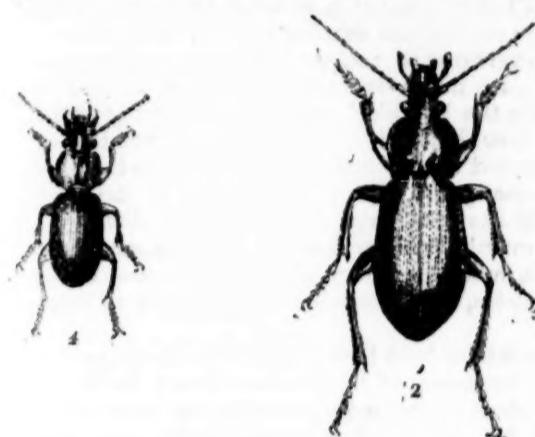
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the hereditary family taste, some species have been known to come to the sugary mixture placed by lepidopterists upon trees to attract nocturnal moths; the rare (Fig. 3) *Anchomenus livens* is usually captured in this way.



corn-fields, is stated to feed upon the corn; but our own firm impression is that it gnaws the grain only to get at the larvae of other insects inside; in this case, however, the cure would be as bad as the disease.

As an example of what may be observed at our very doors, we may relate that in front of our house there is a small, sunken, bricked area, and the aspect being north, it is usually somewhat damp, and the resort of sundry wood-lice (*Onisci*), which shelter under the leaves fallen from an over-hanging birch-tree. Here they might lead quiet and sequestered lives, as becomes such retiring creatures; but it is no happy valley for them, for by accident or design certain filibustering *Carabidae* drop down into it, and, relinquishing their usual nocturnal habits, employ themselves by making murderous daylight attacks upon the peaceful aborigines. In vain they roll themselves into balls; their assailants find a salient point, and, working with their powerful mandibles, soon leave nothing but a shell which the assassins not unfrequently carry about on their heads as trophies. These beetles, however, do not devote exclusive attention to the *Onisci*, for if a caterpillar unluckily misses his footing on the birch-tree above, and falls into the den, they devour it immediately. Any poor powerless beetle that has lost his way, and seeks shelter here, is speedily added to the list of victims, as their mangled remains plainly show; even the hardest of all beetles, the weevils, are found deprived of legs and antennae, and eventually we believe the savages attack each other, for their mutilated skeletons are scattered all around, showing the truth of the adage, "that two of a trade never agree." The species that here hold sanguinary carnival are *Carabus violaceus* (Fig. 2), *Pterostichus madidus* (Fig. 4), and *Pterostichus melanarius*, and sometimes a member of another amiable family, *Ocyphus olens*, literally drops in to assist at the revels. Even in London, *Geodephaga* are not wanting, for in the kitchens and cellars of old houses *Prionychus terricola* and *Sphodrus leucophthalmus* occur, preying, we suspect, upon cockroaches, which are generally known as "black-beetles," although in reality they belong to another order of insects, and are not beetles at all.



To think of the amount of slaughter committed by these *Geodephaga*—hexapod Huns that overrun the fairest portions of the earth—is horrible; but our regrets may be moderated by believing that no Attila leads them, that no wanton lust of appetite impels them to destroy creatures fairer than themselves, but that according to the law of their existence they kill only to live, and unlike rational human hordes following a great commander, they do not live only to kill for the aggrandisement of themselves or others. Their presence is necessary to the scheme of creation; the result of the warfare continually carried on by these small carnivora being the limitation of the number of insects that but for their interference would soon denude the earth of every leaf and blade of grass, making it uninhabitable for man and other animals. They are thus of essential service to the farmer and gardener, who, however, too commonly do not know their best friends. We may also believe that the victims to the *Geodephaga*, on account of the absence of a centre to their nervous system, are incapable of feeling the agonies of creatures endowed with a brain when their bodies suffer mutilation.

Although, when they have arrived at the adult state, the *Geodephaga*, like some higher animals, conceal their carnal appetites and savage dispositions under a polished exterior, yet, in their adolescent condition, they wear no disguise, but appear in all their unmitigated ugliness. They are then of dull colours, have large heads furnished with formidable jaws, and mounted on long fleshy bodies, and are altogether of a repulsive aspect. From their habit of secreting themselves, and from the difficulty of imitating the conditions under which they live, especially in supplying them with appropriate food, but few have been reared in confinement, so it is not known if the economy of the larvae of the different species varies.

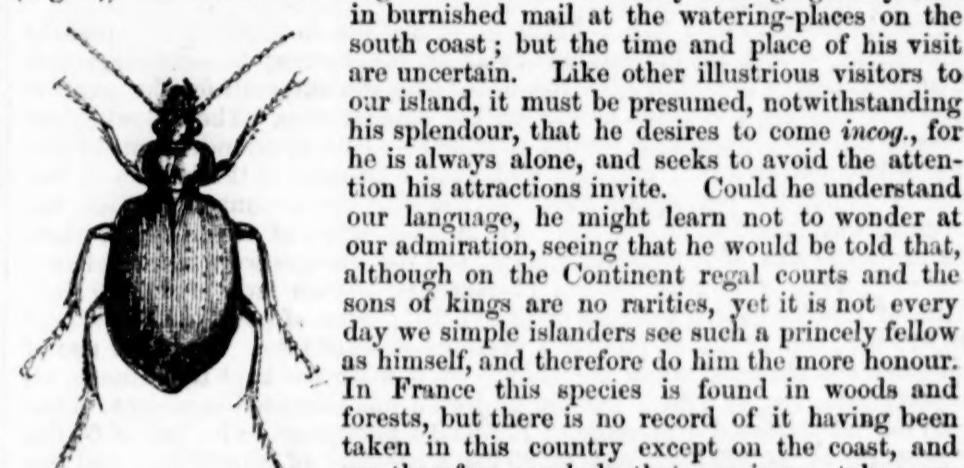
It is pleasant in the calm evening hours of a hot day in summer, when walking through the fields, to see the upward rush of insect life through the ambient air, nor does the stream of living atoms cease so long as light remains. Multitudes of these are small *Geodephaga-bembidi* and *Dromii*, creatures that have all their life grovelled in dirt and filth, and now, like souls set free from the influences that have hitherto kept them down, leave earth behind and aspire heavenward. In the deeper dusk, as if emulous of the example of his lesser brethren, a *Harpalus* floats past, and it is probable the flight of many other species, on the principle that it is never too late to mend, is prolonged far into the night.

Although the habits of most of the species of *Geodephaga* are nocturnal, yet if they are unearthed by daylight, they by no means give themselves up for lost, but make so good a use of their natural advantage of length of limb, as often to evade the collector's ready grasp, their activity being aided by the smallness of the creatures and the dullness of their colour.

On an extremely hot day in June, 1854, we sought at Sheerness the

pretty *Stenolophus elegans* (Fig. 5), but, to our dismay, saw that the spot where it had been discovered some years before was covered with water. Under some refuse one of these rare beetles was for a moment visible, but it eluded the hand that tried to capture it, and was no more seen. After a while, in an adjacent swamp, full of tall grasses, by dint of infinite pains in digging over the surface of the ground, and of activity in pouncing upon the little gems, which, as fast as they were turned up, glided instantaneously under the loosened mud, a quantity of them were caught. Rare and local the species was, and rare it is likely to be again, for this only spot in which it delights has recently been appropriated by man and covered with buildings. This is an example of the ways in which species of insects are rendered rare or are altogether extinguished in a country.

The hot months of summer are not the best in which to seek *Geodephaga*, for many species are then in the imperfect states, and others have hidden themselves deep in the ground. In spring and autumn they abound, the greater number of species preferring damp situations; but some are attached to elevated and dry districts. At these seasons they love to secrete under clods, stones, wood, or loose rubbish, and a few under the loose bark of trees. Soil has a good deal to do with the occurrence of particular species, some being only found on chalk, some on sand, some on mountains, and some on the seashore. Among the latter is the splendid *Calosoma sycophanta*, (Fig. 1), who sometimes



coast are found two species of the genus *Aepus*, minute creatures which hide under stones that are covered by the tide at high water. Of similar habits are *Bembidium laterale*, *Lymnaeum nigro-piceum*, and *Blemus areolatus* (Fig. 5), all of which burrow in the sand or shingle that, twice in every twenty-four hours, is covered for a considerable period by the sea; and thus, like the Romans of old, they pass a good portion of their lives in the bath.

In the winter the collector may reap a large harvest by going to the margins of rivers, streams, ponds, or indeed any place that is damp, and cutting up with a long sharp knife the grasses that grow in tufts, particularly *Aira cespitosa* and *Dactylis glomerata*, severing them just below their insertion in the earth, and in this way literally cutting the ground from under the feet of the dwellers in the tufts. The quantity of beetles to be obtained in this way is enormous, not only of *Geodephaga* but also of other sections; for on the approach of winter, those insects that are destined to live through the winter and be ready for action in the spring, congregate in the tufts and lie torpid during the cold weather. The tuft cut off is to be transferred to a large sheet of paper or a cloth, and pulled to pieces, the beetles will then be found on the paper, and are to be transferred to the collecting-bottle; but as many will be so benumbed that they cannot move, and others, by reason of their small size, not easily seen among the débris, the refuse should be put into a bag and taken home for examination. Thus often come under the eye of the delighted coleopterist species that he would in vain seek at any other season of the year, when they would be active and distributed over a wide area. A few species may also be obtained in winter in rotten willows, and by digging at the roots of trees.

But some one may ask, how am I to know these *Geodephaga* if I find them? There is no royal road to the science of entomology, but once having obtained a liking for it, the path opens out gradually before you. In the first place, all these beetles have five joints in each foot (*tarsus*), the head is prominent, the antennae (flexible appendages projecting from the head) are moniliform, or like beads strung on a necklace, and the jaws powerful. The mouth is of a complicated structure, and the variation in the form of the parts is used as the chief character in the separation of genera. But without going into these details we may remark that the thorax, or large plate immediately behind the head, is very characteristic, the typical form is heart-shaped, but it is also sometimes round, oval, or square, more rarely wider behind than in front. The hard wing cases (*elytra*) are more or less oval, generally convex, but sometimes flattened.

These characters give the *Geodephaga* a peculiar appearance, which is soon impressed on the mind, and enables one at once to distinguish a member of this section of beetles, and, on the same principle, to discriminate the minor divisions of families and genera. The *Geodephaga* are not likely to be confounded with any other section of the Coleoptera, except some of the *Heteromera*, to which they bear a *prima facie* resemblance, but in these the number of joints in the tarsi of the hind-legs is only four instead of five.

The number of distinct species of *Geodephaga* known to inhabit Britain, is about 320, all of which, except a few found since the work was published (1854), are described in Dawson's "Geodephaga Britannica."

#### CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

SOME elaborate reports on subjects connected with the artillery, including the best form and material for cannon and the qualities desirable in gunpowder, have just been furnished by Captain Rodman to the United States Government. Several of the facts which he has brought to light, and the improvements which he has consequently been able to suggest as being desirable in different branches of manufacture, appear to show so much clearer an insight into these matters than our own War Department has

obtained, or, at all events, has published, that a short *résumé* of the most striking points cannot fail to interest the public. Some of the most novel facts which he has brought to light are in relation to the pressure in a cannon at the time of its discharge, exerted by the gases resulting from the combustion of the powder.

In order to measure this pressure, a most ingenious instrument was devised. A very strong hollow steel cylinder has working within it a piston about a third of an inch in diameter, one end of which is made flat, and the other is armed with a hard steel point, which is opposite to a copper bar screwed tightly in at the other end. Any force, therefore, which acts on the flat end of the steel piston, tends to drive the steel point into the copper bar. A hole of the same diameter as the steel piston is then drilled through the wall of the cannon to the bore, and the outer portion of this hole is enlarged to receive the steel cylinder, which is then tightly screwed into it, the flat end of the piston being thus brought opposite the small hole leading to the bore of the cannon. The gun is then loaded with a charge, the pressure of which it is desired to ascertain. The gases arising from the combustion of the powder press against the inner end of the piston and force it outwards, driving the steel point into the copper bar to a depth depending upon the amount of the pressure. The cylinder is then unscrewed from the gun, and the copper bar and steel point are placed under a massive press, and the force required to produce an indentation equal to that produced by the gas is accurately measured.

Captain Rodman says that a difference of 250 lbs. in 30,000 lbs. is plainly perceptible, so that the indications of this instrument may be safely regarded as approximating to within 1,000 lbs. of the true amount, even for the greatest pressures exerted, and much nearer for the smaller ones. The following are some of the most interesting results obtained:—In a 42-pounder gun, 14 lbs. of powder, with two shot and one wad, gave a pressure at the bottom of the bore of 55,622 lbs. per square inch; with double the amount of powder, the pressure was raised to 64,510 lbs. In another series of experiments, when the projectile was of a constant weight, and the charges were increased successively, 3 lbs. of powder gave a pressure per square inch of 11,319 lbs.; 6 lbs. of powder gave a pressure of 18,811 lbs.; 9 lbs. of powder a pressure of 28,972 lbs., and 12 lbs. of powder a pressure of 38,961 lbs. A similar rise of pressure was observed when the charge of powder was kept the same in all experiments, viz., at 5 lbs.; but the projectile was increased in weight. Thus a 40 lb. ball produced a pressure of 17,563 lbs. per square inch; one of 60 lbs. a pressure of 34,966 lbs.; one of 80 lbs. a pressure of 38,462 lbs., and one of 85 lbs. a pressure of 41,120 lbs.

Guns of different calibres were also experimented upon, and it was found that a very marked increase in pressure of gas took place as the diameter of bore increased: the cause of this is believed to be mainly due to the greater heat developed by the combustion of the larger mass of powder in the large than in the smaller calibre; and perhaps also to the different products of combustion formed under this increased temperature and pressure, and partly to the greater cooling surface in proportion to the weight of charge in the smaller than in the larger calibre. By boring holes in guns at different distances along the side of the bore, the variations in pressure behind the shot as it traversed the length of the tube were well shown. The results of this series of trials are very instructive; our space will only allow us to quote one example. The bore of the gun was 11 inches diameter, this was charged with 12½ lbs. of powder and a shot weighing 186 lbs. At the bottom of the bore the pressure on firing was 86,750 lbs. per square inch; at 14 inches from the hollow it was 29,300; at 28 inches it was 27,800; at 42 inches it was 22,420; at 56 inches it was 28,400; at 70 inches it was 33,850; and at 84 inches (close to the muzzle) it was 25,050. A point worthy of note in this series is that the indications of pressure are greater at 56 inches, 70 inches, and 84 inches than they are at 42 inches.

One very remarkable point elicited by these experiments is the enormous pressure which cast-iron guns are able to bear without bursting. The highest pressure observed in a cannon was 100,000 lbs. (upwards of 24 tons) to the square inch; but this was greatly exceeded in a shell. A very strong shell was cast; the exterior diameter being 12 inches, and the interior a little less than 4, with an orifice only one-tenth of an inch in diameter, this orifice being the only outlet for the gas. The cavity was filled with powder, which was fired, when the instrument indicated the enormous pressure of 185,000 lbs. (nearly 45 tons) to the square inch. The explanation of the gun bearing such pressures as these, is that *time* is required for the rupture of any mass of iron, though the rupturing force may be greatly in excess of the resistance of that mass. In the ordinary discharge of cannon the gun is subjected at each discharge to a force which would inevitably burst it if permitted to act for any appreciable length of time, so that it may be said that cannon do not burst because they have not time to do so before the bursting pressure is relieved.

#### LEARNED SOCIETIES.

The fifth annual congress of the Social Science Association, opened on Wednesday, in the rooms of the Royal Irish Academy, Dublin, its founder and President, Lord Brougham, delivering the inaugural address, in which he reviewed the progress which social science had made during the past year, and its present state and prospects.

The great rule of gradual progress governs the moral sciences as well as the natural. Take an example from the great change in our jurisprudence in 1851, by the Act for the examination of parties in all civil suits. The improvements in agriculture have obliged landlords to make a great outlay upon draining and farm-buildings; at the same time they have contributed to the building and support of schools, improving the buildings of the poor, and the building and repair of churches. It was one of the happy effects of advancement in any path that it begets a zeal for advancement in other directions, and he who begins by improving his estate ends in wishing to improve the people upon it and near it. The most important of all our departments, unquestionably, is the first—Jurisprudence; of measures recommended at the former meeting, those which have been approved and passed are of very great moment. Their important propositions respecting Charitable Trusts have, to a great extent, been adopted by the Education Commission, and the amendments of the Bankruptcy and Insolvency Laws have almost all been introduced into the new Act. There has been the most satisfactory change in the manner of dealing with Consolidation Bills. The wise resolution which they strongly urged has been adopted, of taking upon trust the

project framed by learned and skilful persons, and examined by a committee of the Lords; thus five Acts have been passed containing a digest of the main body of the criminal statute law. A most important Bill for removing the defect of our law as to the wills of British subjects executed abroad, had been passed. We must also record a very important motion of Lord Clanricarde, upon Irish judicature and judicial procedure in comparison with the English. An important advantage has been gained by the last congress for the interests of education. For the first time the leaders of the Established Church party, of the Free Church party, and of the united Presbyterians, met together and maintained their respective views. The result was the formation of a representative committee, whose labours there was reason to expect will lead to a reduction of the points of difference, and a removal of the main obstacles to progress. The diffusion of sanitary knowledge is most important; and the co-operation of ladies being accepted, the council have no doubt in affiliating the Ladies' Sanitary Society, which acts under the highest patronage, and spreads among the poor a knowledge of the laws of health; much of debility, disease, and premature mortality in this country results from ignorance and error, and might be prevented. The Criminal and Reformatory Department presents very satisfactory results, especially the Irish branch of the subject. In the English and Irish returns, the former take all ticket-of-leave men as unconvicted against whom nothing appears, whereas the latter more accurately give the result of the information taken by tracing the party ever since his liberation. This diversity prevents us from making any comparison between the numbers in the two cases; but the different results of the two systems may be gathered from the fact that at Lusk we see numerous convicts set to work, and only retained by moral restraint, without any sentinels, while at Portland we see the convicts quarrying stones for the breakwater under the guard of sentinels with muskets and bayonets; and on the breakwater itself, which is more difficult to guard, free labourers and not convicts are employed. In Social Economy much attention was at the last congress given to the important introduction into the manufacturing districts of the co-operative system,—the establishment of unions by the working classes, for the purposes of sharing in the profits on the goods consumed or used by them, as well as of preventing adulteration of those goods, and for the other purpose of carrying on branches of manufacture. In both these kinds of union the progress has been very great. Above 50 companies for manufacture have been established, besides many of mere stores. In these last, a capital of £500,000 is invested; but in the former, the manufacturing concerns represent a capital of nearly £3,000,000. Two hundred and fifty societies have been, within the past year, enrolled under the Friendly Society Act; and the effect of co-operation in preventing those strikes, so pernicious to the working classes and so dangerous to the peace of the community, has been everywhere felt.

Lord Brougham then dwelt at length on the Temperance movements, and their good results. Their attention was engaged at the last congress to the employment of women, and the printing establishment opened by Miss Faithfull has gone on with increasing success. Miss Parkes has originated a scheme for encouraging the emigration of educated women who cannot find employment in this country. For the inferior class of women the exertions to reclaim the fallen and prevent the fall of others are above all praise. An important plan has been devised by Mr. Layard and others, of encouraging the humbler classes in acquiring books. This gave rise to Book Unions; and though a Bill to facilitate these was thrown out upon a groundless alarm that it tended to encourage gambling, there is reason to hope that it may be successful another year. He next referred to the early-closing and Saturday half-holiday. At the last congress the important step was taken of adding a sixth department, mainly for international subjects; and under this division Lord Brougham gave a lucid summary of the prominent events which had taken place in foreign countries, and concluded amidst much applause his long and elaborate address.

The British Archaeological Association hold their eighteenth annual gathering next week, at Exeter, under the presidency of Sir Stafford Henry Northcote. On Monday the reception of the President by the members will take place at the Royal Public Rooms, and a visit will be paid to Rougemont Castle and other antiquities in that fine old city. On Tuesday the Cathedral will be visited, and an excursion made by rail to Pynes. Copplestone and Crediton will also be visited. On Wednesday, Ford Abbey, Ottery St. Mary, and Cadhay House will be the objects of attraction. On Thursday there will be excursions to Newton Abbott, Torquay, and Kent's Cavern. Collumpton, Bradfield House, and Bradinch Manor House will be visited on Friday; and on Saturday the congress will terminate with an excursion to Dartmouth, Darlington Hall, Pomeroy Castle, and Totness. On the Monday following the congress and party will proceed to Dartmoor for the purpose of examining some of its most remarkable antiquities. On this occasion the members of the Association will be entertained by the Teign Naturalists' Field Club, and will also inspect some of the chief remains in the vicinity of Chagford.

#### SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

##### ATMOSPHERIC ELECTRICITY.

M. Volpicelli, of Rome, has published a new work on atmospheric electricity. He states that, contrary to the generally received opinion, the serenity of the sky is not always accompanied by electricity in a positive condition; that while evaporation favours its development, the formation of vesicular vapours favours the contrary condition. From nine in the evening to nine in the morning, the electricity of the air in summer is negative, and most commonly this electricity changes its condition two or three times a day.

##### THE CITY PUMPS.

In the report recently presented to the Commissioners of Sewers, by Dr. Letheby, medical officer of health, he gives an alarming account of the state of the wells from which many of the poor classes in the city habitually draw water for domestic and drinking purposes. The results of analyses which he has performed show that the city pumps are not only charged with decaying organic matter, but also with the saline products of its oxidation; the ammonia, for instance, is a sign of present putrefaction and the alkaline nitrates of a past, besides which the existence of so large a quantity of common salt is suggestive of the filthiest impurities; as, for instance, the fluid matters discharged from the human body, and the percolations from cesspools and sewers. Most of these waters are bright and sparkling, and they have a cool and agreeable taste. They are, therefore, much sought after for drinking purposes; but the coolness of the *b* verage and the briskness of its appearance are dangerous fascinations, they being both derived from organic decay. Dead and decomposing matters have accumulated in the soil, and have been partially changed by its wonderful powers of oxidation, and thus converted into carbonic acid and nitre. These have given to the water the agreeable qualities which are so deceptive.

In reality the water from the City pumps is far worse than that from the muddy

river, from which it is in great part derived; indeed it may, at any moment, become charged with the active agents of disease, for no one can say when the salutary influence of the soil may fail by being worn out or overtaxed, and then the putrid organic compounds will pass into the wells unchanged. Many of the pumps are in close proximity to the fat graveyards of the City, and it is more than probable that all of them derive a portion of their water from these sources, for they are the principal gathering grounds for the surface springs; in fact, they are the only open spaces through which the rain can percolate to reach the shallow wells. We believe that in consequence of this report some little stir is being made in the City about these pumps. We do not know whether it is the intention of the authorities to take any active steps in the matter, but most certainly the foulest of the wells, namely those in Bishopsgate-street Without; Aldgate; Cock and Hoop-yard, Houndsditch; Bishopsgate-street Within; Bride-lane; Bow Churchyard; Fenchurch-street; Little Britain; Basinghall-street; Chequer-yard, Dowgate-hill; Bell-yard, Gracechurch-street; Idol-lane; Ironmonger-lane; Bartholomew-lane; Cornhill; Bowling-square, White Lion-street; Half-Moon-passage; Great St. Helens; Gutter-lane; Honey Lane-market; Guildhall-buildings; and Grovers' Hall-court, should at once be filled up; and the space which is now occupied by pumps liable at any moment to distribute the seeds of cholera or typhus into every family which resorts to them should be occupied with drinking fountains running with a constant stream of the pure and wholesome New River water. The expense of the alteration would probably not exceed that of one City dinner.

#### PRODUCTION OF THE GREEN COLOUR OF PLANTS UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF THE ELECTRIC LIGHT.

M. Hervé Mangon has made some interesting experiments on the production of green colouring matter in the leaves of plants under the influence of the electric light. Plants grown in the dark are known to be colourless, and the greenness of the leaves is always attributed to the action of the sun's rays. It was interesting, therefore, to know if the green matter which young leaves develop so freely in the sunshine would be produced equally under the influence of the strong light of electric lamps. Through the assistance of M. Allard, the head of the French Lighthouse Establishment, the desired means for the experiment were obtained. The electricity was produced by an electro-magnetic machine worked by a steam-engine, and the light obtained from coke-points. In a space perfectly dark, about a metre from the lamp, small flower-pots were placed, each containing four seeds. In a few days the shoots of the young plants were seen tipped with green at their summits. As the plants grew, their greenness became more and more evident, and they all turned towards the light. Like plants grown at the same time in the dark for comparison appeared completely yellow; and it was thus seen that the light emanating from electro-magnetic machines has the same influence as the solar light on the green colour of plants.

#### CONNECTION OF THE TRIANGULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN WITH FRANCE AND BELGIUM.

Lient. the Hon. Delaporte French, with a party of one corporal and six sappers of the Royal Engineers (Ordnance Survey Department), have been despatched to the Continent for the purpose of connecting the triangulation of Great Britain with that of France and Belgium, in co-operation with a commission appointed by the Minister of War of France. The ultimate result to be obtained is the substitution of one meridional line for the three lines of Greenwich, Paris, and St. Petersburg, that are at present in use in different countries, and thus to harmonise the maps of all countries. The party took over camp equipage for six men, consisting of observatories, marqueses, &c., packed in two ambulance waggons; and they are expected to be absent from England about eight months. The connection of the French and Russian systems will be carried out by the officers of those countries.

#### WELDING STEEL COLD.

It is well known that lead may be welded in a cold state. If a leaden bullet be cut into two parts, and the bright surfaces be immediately pressed together before they have time to oxidise, a slightly twisting strain accompanying the pressure, the pieces will adhere together as firmly as before they were cut. Mr. Rowell, a correspondent of the *Scientific American*, gives an account of steel being welded by a similar process. At some large mills with which he is connected, seven runs of stones are driven from a drum on a vertical iron shaft, which is ten inches in diameter, and fifteen feet in length. This shaft is supported by two or three plates of steel, formed in circular discs, and revolving one upon another, so as to divide the motion of the shaft between them, and diminish the velocity of the rubbing surfaces. The plates, by their revolutions, of course become worn, so that their flat surfaces coincide throughout, these surfaces being perfectly bright. Now occasionally the great weight of the shaft presses out the lubricating material from between two of the plates, and when this occurs, the plates are welded together; or at all events adhere so firmly that it is impossible to separate them by means of a cold chisel and hammer.

#### ASTRONOMICAL INTELLIGENCE.

##### EPHEMERIS OF COMET II. OF 1861.

(Continued.)

Greenwich Mean Midnight.	R.A. h. m. s.	N.P.D. ° /	Log. Dist. from Earth.	Greenwich Mean Midnight.	R.A. h. m. s.	N.P.D. ° /	Log. Dist. from Earth.
Aug. 9 ... 15	9 27 ... 43	39.2 ... 0.05336		Sept. 5 ... 15	39 25 ... 46	54.3	
10 ...	10 33 ...	49.4		6 ...	40 37 ...	59.2	
11 ...	11 40 ...	59.2		7 ...	41 49 ...	47 4.0	
12 ...	12 42 ...	44 8.4		8 ...	43 2 ...	8.7 ... 0.25360	
13 ...	13 46 ...	17.6		9 ...	44 15 ...	13.2	
14 ...	14 51 ...	26.6 ... 0.09719		10 ...	45 29 ...	17.6	
15 ...	15 56 ...	35.4		11 ...	46 43 ...	21.0	
16 ...	17 0 ...	43.8		12 ...	47 58 ...	26.0	
17 ...	18 3 ...	51.9		13 ...	49 13 ...	30.0 ... 0.27640	
18 ...	19 8 ...	59.9		14 ...	50 29 ...	33.8	
19 ...	20 13 ...	45 7.7 ... 0.13576		15 ...	51 45 ...	37.5	
20 ...	21 18 ...	15.3		16 ...	53 1 ...	41.1	
21 ...	22 23 ...	22.7		17 ...	54 19 ...	44.5	
22 ...	23 29 ...	29.9		18 ...	54 36 ...	47.9 ... 0.29745	
23 ...	24 35 ...	36.9		19 ...	56 54 ...	51.1	
24 ...	25 41 ...	43.8 ... 0.17005		20 ...	58 13 ...	54.1	
25 ...	26 47 ...	50.5		21 ...	59 31 ...	57.1	
26 ...	27 53 ...	57.1		22 ...	16 0 51 ...	59.9	
27 ...	29 1 ...	46 3.5		23 ...	2 11 ... 48	2.6 ... 0.31660	
28 ...	30 8 ...	9.7		24 ...	3 32 ...	5.1	
29 ...	31 16 ...	15.8 ... 0.20077		25 ...	4 52 ...	7.5	
30 ...	32 25 ...	21.7		26 ...	6 14 ...	9.7	
31 ...	33 33 ...	27.5		27 ...	7 36 ...	12.0	
Sept. 1 ...	34 43 ...	33.1		28 ...	8 59 ...	14.1 ... 0.33443	
2 ...	35 53 ...	38.6		29 ...	10 21 ...	16.0	
3 ...	37 3 ...	44.0 ... 0.22848		30 ...	11 44 ...	17.8	
4 ...	38 14 ...	49.2					

J. BREEN.

#### THE COMET.

The following ephemeris has been calculated by M. Seeling for the Berlin mean midnight of the under-mentioned dates:—

	R.A. h. m. s.	Decl. ° /	Distance from Earth. Miles.	Brightness, July 27 = 1.0
Aug. 17 ...	15 18 0	+45 10.4	124,450,000	0.25
18 ...	15 19 4	45 2.4		
19 ...	15 20 9	44 54.6		
20 ...	15 21 13	44 47.0	131,900,000	0.21
21 ...	15 22 18	44 39.6		
22 ...	15 23 23	44 32.3		
23 ...	15 24 24	+44 25.3	138,700,000	0.18

Liais has called attention to the fact that the elements have a distant resemblance to those of the comet of 1684.

We observed the comet yesterday evening. Its general appearance (brilliancy, of course, excepted) seems to vary but little from day to day.

#### THE PERIODICAL COMET OF WINNECKE (1858, II.).

On June 12th, 1819, M. Pons, the well-known comet-finder of the period, discovered a small, ill-defined telescopic comet. The observations made were not very extensive, but were sufficient to enable Encke and others to ascertain that the true path of the body was an ellipse of rather small eccentricity to which a period of 2,051 days might be assigned.

The comet was not seen again till March 8th, 1858, when it was re-discovered by Winnecke, at Bonn, who soon determined its identity.

In the last number of the *Astronomische Nachrichten* there is a valuable memoir by M. Seeling discussing the observations of this comet made at its last apparition. It will be sufficient for our purpose to give the results of Seeling's investigation in the shape of a revised table of the elements of the comet:—

$$\tau = 1858. \text{ May } 1. \text{ B. M. T.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \pi &= 275^{\circ} 40' 31.4'' \\ \Omega &= 113^{\circ} 34' 5.08'' \\ i &= 10^{\circ} 48' 11.99'' \\ \phi &= 49^{\circ} 1' 38.06'' \quad \therefore \epsilon = 0.75501 \\ \mu &= 638.06'' \text{ and } + \\ p &= 2031.153 \text{ days.} \end{aligned}$$

August 14th, 1861.

X. Y. Z.

#### CORRESPONDENCE.

##### COMPULSORY VACCINATION BILL.

SIR,—I have read with interest your article upon the "Compulsory Vaccination Bill," and I concur most fully in your views, that every effort should be made, commensurate with the liberty of the subject, to render the practice of vaccination uniform and complete. Small-pox is a malady of the direst character, and the community at large is entitled to demand the fulfilment of sanitary laws which regard exclusively, without selfish interests, the public welfare. I dissent, however, from your suggestion to impose upon medical men the odious duty of reporting non-compliance with the Act. Such a course of proceeding must jeopardize their professional interests by bringing them into antagonism with their employers. Neither can I perceive the justice of increasing their responsibilities without fee or reward, albeit they constitute the only public body, so far as I know, subject to such injustice as in the case of certificates of death; surely they are as much entitled to remuneration as the subordinate officers appointed to administer public acts.

Instead of leaving it *discretionary* with Boards of Guardians to engage a public officer, in the guise of an informer, to enforce the pains and penalties inflicted by the Act, after conviction, I would make it *imperative* upon them to contract with every legally qualified practitioner in the union, for the purposes of vaccination. In this way they would secure *earnest co-operation*, and remove the objection which, upon various grounds, many persons entertain, above the condition of paupers, to apply to the "parish doctor," but who seek to avoid the expense incidental to the operation. Under such circumstances many children remain unvaccinated, and a grievous pest is propagated throughout the length and breadth of the land.—I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

G. F. H.

Egham, August 8th, 1861.

#### A PORTABLE EQUATORIAL.

SIR,—Will you kindly allow me to correct an inaccuracy in my description of a portable equatorial, which you did me the favour to print in your impression of last week? At the 12th line from the beginning, the word "north" should be omitted. Its insertion seems to show that the equatorial cannot be directed to objects having a *south* declination, which is not the case, as it can be directed to any point in the heavens, which is not in the immediate neighbourhood of the pole.—Your most obedient servant,

Clifton, August 12th, 1861.

WILLIAM C. BURDER.

#### NECROLOGY.

##### THE BISHOP OF DURHAM.

On Friday, the 9th instant, at the Castle, Bishop Auckland, aged 48, the Hon. and Right Rev. Henry Montagu Villiers, Lord Bishop of Durham, eightieth occupant of that see, formerly Rector of St. George's, Bloomsbury, and Canon of St. Paul's. The deceased prelate was the fifth son of the late Hon. George Villiers, brother of the late Earl of Clarendon, by Theresa, only daughter of John, first Lord Boringdon, and sister of the late Earl of Morley, and was born in London, on the 4th of January, 1813. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, where he graduated B.A. in 1834, but without taking any distinguished honours, and proceeded M.A. in 1837. Already, namely, in the year 1836, he had been ordained deacon by the Bishop of Chester (now Archbishop of Canterbury), his title for orders being the curacy of Deane, Lancashire; and, in 1837, he was admitted into priest's orders by the Right Rev. Dr. Carr, late Lord Bishop of Worcester. In the same year he was preferred, by the then Lord Chancellor, to the Crown living of Kenilworth, which was formerly held by the father of the present Archbishop Sumner, and of the Bishop of Winchester, as also by Dr. Samuel Butler, formerly Head Master of Shrewsbury School, and subsequently Bishop of Lichfield. In 1841, on the promotion of Dr. Thomas V. Short to the see of Sodor and Man, he was promoted by the then administration to the metropolitan rectory of St. George's, Bloomsbury, the gross income of which is given in Crookford's "Clerical Directory" at £800 a-year. In 1847 he was nominated

[Aug. 17, 1861.]

to a canonry in St. Paul's Cathedral, worth £1,000 more; both of which pieces of preferment he continued to hold down to his elevation to the Episcopal Bench in 1856, when he succeeded the late Right Rev. Dr. Hugh Percy in the see of Carlisle. He was translated to the see of Durham only last year, on the elevation of Dr. Charles T. Longley to the archiepiscopal see of York, vacated by the death of the late Dr. Musgrave. As a hardworking, parochial clergyman, in one of the largest and most important London parishes, the name of Dr. Villiers will always be most widely known, and few more truly popular clergymen have ever filled a metropolitan pulpit than the Hon. and Rev. Henry Montagu Villiers. He was admirable, also, in the management of his parish schools; the zeal with which he devoted his energies to the management of parish business was above all praise; and he compelled those who differed most widely from his religious opinions to admire his ability and administrative talents. If not learned or abstruse, he had at least the merit of being plain and practical; and he preferred his parochial work to the platform at Exeter Hall. He was the author of a few "Sermons" and "Lectures," including a work on "Confirmation," and also of a volume of "Family Prayers." As Bishop of Durham, he enjoyed the patronage of between seventy and eighty livings, and the income of his see was £8,000 a-year. Dr. Villiers leaves one surviving sister, the Lady Theresa Lewis (wife of Sir George Cornwall Lewis, Bart., M.P.), and two brothers, the Earl of Clarendon, K.G., and the Right Hon. Charles Pelham Villiers, M.P. for Wolverhampton, and late Judge Advocate, one of the most eminent advocates of the repeal of the Corn Laws. The late bishop married, in January, 1837, Amelia Maria, eldest daughter of William Hulton, Esq., of Hulton Park, Lancashire, by whom he has left surviving issue two sons and four daughters to lament his loss and their own. His eldest daughter is the wife of the Rev. Edward Cheese, Rector of Haughton-le-Skrine, about whose living there has been so much controversy raised of late in the public papers. The family of Villiers, Earl of Clarendon, is a younger branch of that of the Earl of Jersey, being sprung from the Hon. Thomas Villiers, a younger son of the first Earl of Jersey, who, having married Charlotte, eldest daughter of William, third Earl of Essex, by his wife Jane, eldest surviving daughter of Henry Hyde, last Earl of Clarendon, of an earlier creation, was created Lord Hyde in 1756, and having subsequently filled the posts of Joint Postmaster-General and Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, obtained in his favour a renewal of the Earldom of Clarendon, which had been borne by his maternal grandfather. This earldom devolved on his eldest and second sons in succession, and was inherited, in December, 1838, by their nephew, the present Earl. The house of Villiers claims descent from the ancient Seigneurs of l'Isle Adam, in Normandy, whence they passed over to England in the train of William the Conqueror. It is not a little singular that the see of Durham should have fallen three times, within little more than five years, to the disposal of Lord Palmerston; firstly, in 1856, on the resignation of Dr. Maltby; again, last year, by the promotion of Dr. Longley; and now again, by the premature decease of Dr. Montagu Villiers, certainly not one of the oldest bishops on the bench.

## EARL OF TRAQUAIR.

On Friday, the 2nd instant, at Traquair House, co. Peebles, aged 80, the Right Hon. the Earl of Traquair. The deceased nobleman was Charles Stuart, only son of Charles, seventh and late Earl, and was born January 31st, 1781. He succeeded to the title on the death of his father, in October, 1827. He was the owner of large estates in Peebles-shire, where his family had been seated since 1492, when the barony of Traquair was conferred on them by the Scottish king, and confirmed by royal charter. The father of the original grantee was James Stuart, second son of Sir James Stuart, the Black Knight of Lorn, by Jean, Queen Dowager of King James I. of Scotland; the mother of the grantee was a daughter of the House of Murray, of Philiphaugh, and as he was not born in wedlock, he was obliged to obtain a charter of legitimacy. His great-great-grandson was raised to the peerage as Lord Stuart, in 1628, and five years later was created Lord Linton and Earl of Traquair. This nobleman, according to Sir Bernard Burke, was constituted Lord Treasurer, Deputy of Scotland, by Charles I., and when that unfortunate prince was afterwards confined a prisoner in Carisbrooke Castle, he raised a regiment of horse for the king's service, but fell, together with his son, Lord Linton, into the hands of the rebels at Preston, and was committed to prison at Warwick Castle, where he remained for four years; when released from durance, he returned home and died in poverty. The fourth Earl of this line married a daughter of the Earl of Nithsdale—a title connected with one of the most romantic stories in the annals of the Scottish rebellion. As the late Earl was never married, the estate passes to his Lordship's sister, the Hon. Louisa Stuart, a lady very far advanced in years. The family of Traquair is one of the few ancient Scottish houses that have adhered without intermission to the Roman Catholic religion. According to the *Scotsman*, the late Earl had, for many years, almost continually resided in retirement, amounting to seclusion, at Traquair House, which is believed to be one of the oldest inhabited houses in Scotland. The magnificent avenue leading to the house remained entirely grass-grown and unused after the death of the Earl's father, the late peer having made a resolution never to pass through it after it had been traversed by the funeral procession. The great staircase and entrance to the mansion were, for the same reason, kept religiously closed. The late Earl, though a strict adherent of the Roman Catholic faith, nevertheless was, throughout life, a strong supporter of the Tory party in politics. He took some interest, especially of late years, in the moral and material improvement of the thriving manufacturing village and still popular and beautiful watering-place of Innerleithen; and was understood to be anxious to encourage building in its neighbourhood by granting feus; but, from some cause or other, his plans in that respect were not carried out. He bore the character of being a good landlord. The paper above quoted presumes that the title is extinct; but a correspondent of the *Daily News* affirms, on the authority of the late Earl, that it is not improbable that the rightful heir will be found in the United States, the Earldom and Barony having both been conferred on the "heirs male general" of the first grantee, "bearing the name of Stuart."

## MAJOR-GENERAL SWINBURNE.

On Saturday, the 27th ult., at Upton, near Southampton, aged 73, Major-General John Swinburne. He was descended from the same family as the Swinburne, Baronets, of Capheaton, Northumberland, being the eldest son of the late William Swinburne, Esq., a Colonel in the army, by Dorothy, daughter of — Dods, Esq. He was born at Folkestone, Kent, in the year 1788, and entered the army as Ensign in 1804, and served with distinction in the Peninsula, with the 43rd and 32nd regiments, where he was twice wounded. The following is the account of his services in "Hart's Army List":—He served with the 43rd regiment at the siege of Copenhagen, in 1807, and in the campaign of 1808, in Portugal, and was wounded in the head in the retreat to Vigo. He took part also in the subsequent campaigns in the Peninsula till 1812, including the action of the Coa, the battle of Fuentes d'Onor, the action of Sabugal, the battle of

Busaco, the retreat to and the occupation of the lines of Torres Vedras, the subsequent advance in pursuit of Massena, and the actions of Pombal and Redinha, where he was wounded in the hip. He joined the army at Toulouse in 1814, and was present in the following year at New Orleans. He subsequently joined the Duke of Wellington's army at Brussels, and was present at the capture of Paris, where he remained with the army of occupation until 1818." He had received the War Medal with two clasps for Busaco and Fuentes d'Onor. He became a Colonel in 1854, and a Major-General on the retired list in 1861. The gallant general, who was buried at Rowhams, Hampshire, married, in 1824, Jane, daughter of John Burge, Esq., by whom he has left two sons and two daughters, William, a Commander, Royal Navy; John, a Captain in the 18th Foot; Isabel, married to Charles Castleman, Esq., of St. Ives, Hants; and Eleanor, married to the Hon. Henry Curzon, son of Earl Howe.

## REV. J. T. MONSON.

On Wednesday, the 31st ult., at the Hall, Bedale, Yorkshire, aged 70, the Rev. John Thomas Monson, Rector of Bedale, and one of the chaplains to her Majesty the Queen. He was the only son of the late Hon. and Rev. Thomas Monson (a younger son of the second and brother of the third Lord Monson) by his first wife, Anne Shipley, daughter of Joseph Green, Esq., who died in 1818. He was born July 7th, 1791, and was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1813, and M.A. in 1815. He was ordained Deacon by Bishop (Bathurst) of Norwich, and Priest by Bishop (Law) of Chester, and in 1843, was appointed to the rectory of Bedale, a living in the patronage of Mr. H. Beresford-Pierse, of Bedale Hall. He married in August, 1813, Elizabeth Anne, daughter of the Rev. Christopher Wyvill, of Bedale.

## LADY MONTRESOR.

On Sunday, the 5th inst., at Ospringe House, near Faversham, Kent, aged 80, the Lady Montresor. Her ladyship was Mary, daughter of the late Major-General Frederick George Mulcaster, and was born in 1780 or early in the following year. In 1802 she married General Sir Thomas Gage Montresor, K.C.H., who was knighted in 1834, and died in 1853.

## THE HON. J. TOUCHET.

On Sunday, the 21st ult., in the County Infirmary at Cork, aged 41, the Hon. John Touchet. He was the second son of the Right Hon. George John, nineteenth Lord Audley in the peerage of England, by Anne Jane, eldest daughter of the late Vice-Admiral Sir Ross Donelly, K.C.B., and was born November 8th, 1819. The deceased gentleman, who was formerly an officer in the army, and was heir-presumptive to the title now enjoyed by his elder brother, married, in September, 1842, Elizabeth, third daughter of the late John Henry Blennerhassett, Esq., of the county of Kerry, by whom he has left issue a son, George, born in 1847, now heir-presumptive to the barony of Audley, and also other children.

## A. ATTWOOD, ESQ.

On Sunday, the 11th instant, at Torquay, aged 48, Algernon Attwood, Esq. He was the youngest son of the late Thomas Attwood, Esq., of "Currency Question" celebrity, many years M.P. for Birmingham, who died in 1856. His mother was Elizabeth, daughter of Mr. William Carless, of Birmingham. He was born in 1813. His eldest surviving brother is Mr. Thomas Aurelius Attwood, of Wood End House, Erdington, near Birmingham.

## D. GREVIS-JAMES, ESQ.

On Monday, the 5th inst., at Oakfield Court, Tunbridge Wells, aged 85, Demetrius Grevis-James, Esq., of Ightham Court, Kent. He was the only son of the late Charles Grevis, Esq. (of the ancient family of Greves or Grevis, of Moseley Hall, co. Worcester), by Elizabeth, daughter of Demetrius James, Esq., a colonel in the army, third son of Wm. James, Esq., of Ightham Court, son of Sir Demetrius James, of Ightham, who was knighted by Charles II. He was born in May, 1776, and inherited the estate of Ightham on the death of his cousin, Richard James, Esq., without issue, in 1817, whose father was High Sheriff of Kent in 1732, and was for some years Usher of the Black Rod in Ireland. He formerly held a commission in the army, and saw some active service at Copenhagen and elsewhere; he was also a magistrate and Deputy Lieutenant for Kent, for which county he served as High Sheriff in 1833. By his wife, Mary, daughter of James Strutt, Esq., of Humbleton in Holderness, Yorkshire, he had issue two sons and seven daughters. He is succeeded by his eldest son, Demetrius Wyndham, major 2nd Foot, who was born in 1819.

## J. MELLOR, ESQ.

On Saturday, the 10th instant, at Leicester, aged 81, John Mellor, Esq. He was an old and respectable inhabitant of that town, and was born in 1780. He was the father of Mr. John Mellor, Q.C., of Otterspool House, near Watford, Herts, Recorder of Leicester, M.P. for Nottingham in the present, and for Great Yarmouth in the last Parliament.

## MRS. BRODHURST.

On Wednesday, the 24th ult., at 20, Grosvenor-street, aged 32, in consequence of an accident, her clothes having caught fire, Mrs. Brodhurst. She was Elizabeth, only child of Edmund Gilling Maynard, Esq., a magistrate and Deputy Lieutenant for the county of Derby. She was born at Chesterfield in the year 1828, and married, in 1852, Bernard Edward Brodhurst, Esq., son of William Brodhurst, Esq., of the Friary, Newark, and the Oaks, Notts, by whom she has left one son and four daughters to lament her loss.

## WILLS AND BEQUESTS.

Lady Elizabeth Forbes, relict of Sir Charles Forbes, Bart., of Newe and Edinglassie. Her ladyship resided in Fitzroy-square, London, but died at Chester House, Wimbledon, on the 14th April last, having executed her will in 1858, to which are added two codicils, both made in 1859. The will and codicils were attested by the same witnesses; namely, Edward Newton and Mary Cox, both residing in Fitzroy-square. Her ladyship nominated as her executors her daughter, Miss Elizabeth Constable Ashburner, and Alexander

Nesbitt Shaw, Esq., late of the Bombay civil service. Probate was granted by the London Court on 23rd July. Her ladyship's personal property was sworn under £14,000. This lady was twice married, and left a family by each husband. Her ladyship was familiarly known to the higher classes, and moved in what is termed fashionable society. Lady Forbes was the daughter of the late Colonel Cotgrave, of the Madras Engineers, and this latter circumstance may probably account for some of her family and grandsons entering the Indian army. Her ladyship has disposed of her property, which she possessed partly under settlement and partly in her own right, entirely amongst her numerous family. To the children of her first husband she leaves the sum of £5,000 under settlement, and to those by her late husband, Sir Charles Forbes, she apportions the sum of £10,000, according to the implied directions of the settlement. Her own property, of which she had the free and entire disposition, her ladyship bequeaths, in various amounts, among her entire family, appointing her daughter, Miss Katherine Stewart Forbes, and her son, James Stewart Forbes, Esq., residuary legatees, share and share alike. Her ladyship has kindly considered the poor of three parishes, in which she appears to have resided, by leaving legacies of £50 to each: two of them being situate in Scotland and the other in London.

**Joseph Dicken, Esq.**, of Akaroa, New Zealand, at which settlement he resided, where also he is supposed to have died, and no will having been found, letters of administration were applied for, he possessing some property in England, as well as in New Zealand. Mr. Dicken was a bachelor, and having no nearer relative than a brother by the half-blood, who resides in Staffordshire, this gentleman consequently obtained the grant of administration. Mr. Dicken seems to have been a successful emigrant, and to have realized some considerable property in New Zealand; but it is a very singular peculiarity, that it is impossible to say whether he is really deceased. The facts are these:—It appears that Mr. Dicken, two or three years since, went out into the woods on horseback, on a shooting excursion, accompanied by his dog; the horse returned without his rider on the same day, and the dog a few days afterwards; and from this period up to the present time, Mr. Dicken has never been heard of. We understand that such incidents are by no means rare in our Australian colonies, the police not being in sufficient force, or from other causes, to protect the lives and property of emigrants.

**Solomon Mendes da Silva, Esq.**, formerly of Jamaica, but late of Cheltenham, Gloucester, where he died on the 30th May last, executed his will, with a codicil, both dated this year, which were proved in the London Court on the 22nd of last month. The executors in this country being Joseph G. Henriques, Esq., of Westbourne-terrace; Jonathan Samuda, Esq., of Stoke-upon-Trent; Asher Asher, Esq., Gordon-street, Euston-square, together with his relict; and the executors for Jamaica being his nephews, Alexander Joseph Lindo and Solomon de Silva Lindo, Esqs. The personal property in England was sworn under £6,000. This is the will of a gentleman of the Jewish persuasion who appears to have acquired a handsome property as a West-India merchant and planter. The principal of his property consists of estates in the Island of Jamaica. The testator has bequeathed to his relict the estate of Colling's-green, St. Andrew's; his sugar plantation, Dover Castle, St. Thomas-in-the-Vale; and an annuity of £200, chargeable upon the estate of Rio Hoe or Da Silva Hope, situated at Moneaque St. Ann's, all within the Island of Jamaica. The last-named estate is left to his nephew, Solomon da Silva Lindo, with directions to pay therefrom various annuities, and he has appointed him, together with his nephew, Alexander Joseph Lindo, residuary legatees. There are many other bequests to relatives and personal friends, and amongst them three of a charitable nature, namely, £50 each to the Synagogues of Jamaica, Bevis Marks, London, and Cheltenham, at which latter place the testator resided, with a request that the usual prayers be made on the Day of Atonement.

**Rear-Admiral the Hon. Frederick Thomas Pelham, C.B.**, late of Eccleston-square, and of the Admiralty, Whitehall, who died at Brighton, on the 21st of June last, aged 52, executed his will in 1847, then captain, and which was attested by Capts. W. H. Henderson and G. T. Gordon, appointing his relict sole executrix, who duly proved the same in the London Court on the 22nd July, the personality being sworn under £14,000. This gallant admiral, who was highly connected, being the brother of the Earl of Chichester and of the Bishop of Norwich, entered the naval service in 1823, and was actively employed in various parts. His services commenced when midshipman, in an attack made to suppress piracy in the Archipelago, and continued up to the period of the late Russian war; and for his gallant conduct he received the distinction of Companion of the Order of the Bath. He held the appointment for some years of naval aide-de-camp to her Majesty, and also filled the office of one of the Lords of the Admiralty till just previous to his decease. Admiral Pelham has bequeathed his property to his relict for her own absolute use, making no other bequest whatever, or in any way altering his will. For a memoir, see No. 52.

**Lieutenant-General Joseph Harris**, of her Majesty's Indian army, and of the Oriental Club, Hanover-square, who died at his residence, Carlton-road, St. John's Wood, on 22nd July last, executed his will in May, 1860, appointing as executors and trustees Oriel Viveash, Esq., Colonel W. F. Grant, both of the Oriental Club, and Dr. R. Cullum, M.D., late of the Bombay army, who proved the will in the London Court on the 3rd of this month, the personality being sworn under £10,000. This gallant general has left all his property, both real and personal, to his executors, in trust, for the benefit of his only daughter, an infant nine years of age, with directions, in the event of her not attaining her majority, or marrying without leaving issue, the property is to descend to the general's two nieces. The testator has also bequeathed, in trust, all his jewellery, with further directions to his trustees to give such articles to his daughter on her attaining a suitable age to wear such ornaments. There are legacies left to each of the executors, and to his housekeeper a year's wages.

**Alexander Pringle, Esq.**, formerly M.P. for Selkirk, late of Whytbank and Yair, N.B., whose testamentary disposition has been registered in Scotland, was proved in London on the 29th ultimo, the testator having died possessed of property in England. He leaves to his relict, in the terms usually adopted in Scottish wills, and according to the laws of that country, the whole estate heritable and moveable, real and personal, excepting the estates of Whytbank and Yair, under settlements of strict entail. The above are the whole dispositions of the will. These latter estates are succeeded to by his son, Alexander Pringle, Esq. The relict is the daughter of Sir William Dick, Bart., at Prestonfield. The Pringle family are of very ancient Scottish descent, who have held landed property in that kingdom from the thirteenth century.

### THE POTATO DISEASE.

In the LONDON REVIEW of August 24th, will be published a most valuable Communication respecting  
**THE POTATO DISEASE: ITS CAUSES AND REMEDIES,**  
Illustrated with Diagrams.

### MEN OF MARK.—No. XX.

#### THE EARL OF SHAFESBURY,

In THE LONDON REVIEW of Saturday, the 31st August, 1861.

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**THEATRE ROYAL, HAYMARKET.**—Monday, August 19, and during the week, to commence at Seven, THE BALANCE OF COMFORT—Mrs. Torrington, Miss M. Oliver; after which, at a Quarter to Eight (33rd time) MY LORD AND MY LADY; OR, IT MIGHT HAVE BEEN WORSE—Mr. Charles Mathews, Mr. Howe, Mr. Buckstone, Mrs. Charles Mathews, Mrs. E. Fitzwilliam, Mrs. Wilkins, &c.; with HE WOULD BE AN ACTOR—Motley, Mr. Charles Mathews; concluding with BACCHUS AND ARIADNE—The Leclercs, Fanny Wright, &c.

**NEW THEATRE ROYAL, ADELPHI.**—Sole Proprietor and Manager, Mr. B. WEBSTER. 104th, and Last Five Nights of the Great Drama of THE DEAD HEART. On Monday and during the Week (Wednesday excepted), THE DEAD HEART—Messrs. B. Webster, D. Fisher, J. L. Toole, P. Bedford, Billington, Stuart, Romer, C. J. Smith; Miss Woolgar, Miss K. Kelly, and Miss Laidlaw. To conclude, Monday and Friday, with THE PRETTY HORSEBREAKERS; other nights Mr. GORILLA. Commence at Seven. On Wednesday the Annual Benefit of Mr. W. Smith, Acting Manager—THE FLOWER OF THE FOREST, THE WOMAN HATER, and PERFECTION.

[Aug. 17, 1861.]

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Every information will be readily afforded on application to the Secretary or Agents.

**EXTRACT FROM DIRECTORS' REPORT,  
MAY, 1861.**

"The Directors are enabled, in rendering their Annual Account, to announce that the year 1860 exhibited a continuance of the same healthy advance on which they last year had to congratulate the Proprietors, and so far as can be foreseen, presents the elements of future prosperity.

"Proposals for the Assurance of £254,033 were made to the Office during the past year, of which amount £167,259 were assured, producing in New Premiums, £5,619 0s. 8d. The Income of the Office on the 31st December last had reached £46,562. 9s., being an increase over 1859 of £9,700.

"The Accounts, having reference to the last three years, show that the Cash Assets have exceeded the liabilities in a gradually increasing ratio, thus:—

In 1858 the Excess was £8,269	7	4
1859	"	12,086
1860	"	18,557
		0 6

"It will be seen that the amount added to the Funds of the Company during the past year shows a surplus of a very satisfactory character, notwithstanding the payment of £14,184. 14s. 5d. for claims consequent on the Death of Members.

"Since the Directors last had the pleasure of meeting the Proprietors, the Royal Assent has been given to a Special Act of Parliament, conferring additional powers on the Company.

"As the close of the present year will bring us to the period prescribed for the Valuation of the Business, with a view to the declaration of a Bonus, the Directors very earnestly invite the co-operation of the Proprietors and all others connected with, or interested in the Office, to assist their efforts in making the present the most successful year of the Company's existence, in order that, individually and collectively, all interests may be advanced."

HENRY D. DAVENPORT, Secretary.

**BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.**

MANCHESTER MEETING, 4th to 11th September, 1861.  
Reception Room, the Portico, Manchester.

**PRESIDENT:**

WILLIAM FAIRBAIRN, Esq., LL.D., F.R.S., &c.

The objects of the Association are:—"To give a stronger impulse and more systematic direction to scientific inquiry; to promote the intercourse of those who cultivate science in different parts of the British Empire with one another and with foreign philosophers; to obtain a more general attention to the objects of science, and a removal of disadvantages of a public kind which impede its progress."

**GENERAL ARRANGEMENTS.**

Wednesday, 4th September.—OPENING MEETING and PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS, at eight p.m., in the Free-trade Hall.

SECTIONAL MEETINGS daily, as usual, from the 5th to the 10th inclusive.

Wednesday, 11th September.—CONCLUDING GENERAL MEETING, in the Free-trade Hall.

Thursday, 5th September.—SOIREE (Microscopes) in the Free-trade Hall.

Friday, 6th September.—EVENING DISCOURSE.

Saturday, 7th September.—SOIREE (Telegraphs), in the Free-trade Hall.

Monday, 9th September.—EVENING DISCOURSE.

Tuesday, 10th September.—SOIREE (Field Naturalists' Society), in the Free-trade Hall.

On Thursday, 12th September.—Important EXCURSIONS.

Gentlemen desirous of attending the meeting may make their choice of being proposed as life members, paying £10 as a composition, or annual subscribers, paying an admission fee of £1, and (additional) £1 annually, or associates for the meeting, paying 4*s*.

Ladies may become members on the same terms as gentlemen; or ladies' tickets (transferable to ladies only) may be obtained in the Reception Room, by members, on payment of £1.

Life members receive gratuitously the reports of the Association which may be published after the date of payment.

Annual subscribers receive gratuitously the report of the Association for the year of their subscription, and for every following year of subscription without intermission. Associates for the meeting are entitled to the report of the meeting at two-thirds of the publication price.

In order to facilitate arrangements for the meeting, it is desirable that application for tickets should be made as early as possible.

Forms of proposal will be supplied in the Reception-room during the meeting; or the names of candidates for admission may be transmitted to the Local Secretaries.

As the funds which the Association has to expend for its scientific objects consist only of the payments made by its members and associates, it is particularly desirable that every opportunity should be taken of increasing their number.

Compositions and subscriptions of new members or associates will be received by the Local Secretaries until the commencement of the meeting; afterwards, as well as the subscriptions and arrears of former members, by the Local Treasurer.

For information respecting the local arrangements, application may be made by letter addressed to any of the Local Secretaries for the meeting, at the "Portico, Manchester."

R. D. DARBYSHIRE,  
ALFRED NEILD,  
ARTHUR RANSOME,  
H. E. ROSCOE,

Local Secretaries  
for the Meeting.

**BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.**

MANCHESTER MEETING.

NOTICE TO EXHIBITORS.

Portico, August, 1861.

Gentlemen proposing to send specimens or apparatus for exhibition during the meeting, will please to address their contributions as follows:—

Zoological Specimens, to Dr. Alcock, Museum, Peter-street, Manchester.

Botanical Specimens, to Leo H. Grindon, Esq., Museum, Peter-street, Manchester.

Geological Specimens, to Rev. G. Perkins, Museum, Peter-street, Manchester.

Chemical Products, to Dr. Roscoe, Owens College, Manchester.

The above may be forwarded at once; the earlier the better.

Microscopes, to G. Mosley, Esq., Free-trade Hall, Manchester. These are to arrive on Tuesday, the 3rd, and Wednesday, the 4th, of September.

Philosophical Apparatus, to R. B. Clifton, Esq., care of John Pender, Esq., Mount-street, Manchester. These must arrive before Saturday the 31st of August.

Mechanical Models, to John Robinson, Esq., care of John Pender, Esq., Mount-street, Manchester.

All contributions must be announced in letters addressed to the gentlemen named, at the British Association, Portico, Manchester. All contributions will be carefully unpacked by skilled persons, and afterwards repacked. Carriage must be prepaid on all except solicited contributions.

Manufacturers exhibiting their own apparatus are expected themselves to provide for the unpacking and arrangement (within the limits at the disposal of the Local Committee), and to attend for the purpose at the Free-trade Hall, on Tuesday, the 3rd, and Wednesday, the 4th; on the latter day before three p.m. All this apparatus must be removed by the exhibitors on Thursday, the 12th of September.

The Local Committee intend to exhibit during soirees only, on tables, in the Free-trade Hall. The arrangements for special soirees (see general advertisement) will not interfere with the tables appropriated for general purposes, which will remain during the week of the meeting.

The Articles in the Free-trade Hall will be insured against risk by fire by the Local Committee, who will provide a general police supervision in the Hall.

Cabinet Specimens which are accepted for exhibition will be shown in locked glass cases, which, if desired, may be placed in charge of the exhibitors.

Inquiries to be addressed to the gentlemen named; or to the undersigned at the Portico.

R. D. DARBYSHIRE,  
ALFRED NEILD,  
ARTHUR RANSOME,  
H. E. ROSCOE,

Local Secretaries  
for the Meeting.

**BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.**

MEETING IN MANCHESTER,  
4TH TO 11TH SEPTEMBER, 1861.

RAILWAY PASSES.

Reception Room, Portico, Manchester, August, 1861. The Executive Committee have arranged with the under-mentioned Railway and Steam Packet Companies to issue to gentlemen and ladies attending the meeting in September, as members or associates, PASSES entitling the bearer to a ticket of admission to Manchester and back for one fare, between the 2nd and 14th of September.

Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Company.

London and North-Western Railway Company.

Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway Company.

Great Northern Railway Company.

North-Eastern Railway Company.

Midland Railway Company.

Caledonian Railway Company.

Great Western Railway Company.

City of Dublin Steam-packet Company (*via* Holyhead).

North Lancashire Steam Navigation Company (*to* Fleetwood).

Belfast Steamship Company (*to* Liverpool).

Glasgow and Liverpool Royal Mail Steam-packet Company.

Application for these passes must be made (the sooner the better), to Local Secretaries, B, A, Portico, Manchester, stating the names of those who will use them, and if any are not yet members or associates, their full names and addresses, and the particular class of membership desired.

The pass cards will have to be exchanged at the Railway or Packet-office for the Company's special ticket.

R. D. DARBYSHIRE,

ALFRED NEILD,

ARTHUR RANSOME,

H. E. ROSCOE,

Local Secretaries

for the Meeting.

See other Advertisements.

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Head Offices: 29, Lombard-street, London; and Royal Insurance-buildings, Liverpool.

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EXTRACTS FROM THE REPORT FOR THE YEAR 1860.

"The success of the Company, even in its earliest years, received the marked attention, and elicited the surprised comments of writers best acquainted with the history of Insurance Companies.

"Fire Premiums for 1860 equal the Total Fire Premiums for the Seven Years 1845 to 1851.

"Life Premiums for 1860 exceed the Entire Life Premiums for the Eight Years ending 1852.

"Purchase of Annuities in 1860 largely exceeds the similar receipts for the first Ten Years, 1845 to 1854.

"This progress, it is believed, is unsurpassed, considering that it applies to each of the three branches of the business.

FIRE BRANCH.

"The Fire Branch has certainly shown no exhaustion during the year 1860 of that impetus which had previously brought it to a position of the first magnitude among the Insurance Companies of the United Kingdom. The Fire Premiums in 1859 had advanced to the sum of £228,314. 7s. 3d. In 1860, the amount of Fire Premiums has arrived at a sum of £262,977. 19s. 1d., showing an increase of £34,663. 12s. 8d., exceeding the large advance of the preceding year, so that in two years the Fire Revenue of the Company has been enhanced by the enormous sum of £66,829. 17s. 5d.

"The Parliamentary Report of Returns of Duty paid to Government for the year 1860 exhibits the augmentation of the business in a more prominent way, as it affords the means of comparison with other Companies. The Proprietors will be gratified to learn that the increase of Duty paid by the Royal in the last year is more than double that of any other Company, either London or Provincial, whilst only one of those Companies even approaches to 50 per cent. of the advance of this Company. Our increase actually equals 30 per cent. of the entire increase of the whole of the Metropolitan Offices combined, whilst of the Provincial Offices it forms upwards of 30 per cent. of the total advance of the other 28 offices established out of London.

LIFE BRANCH.

"The Reports of the Company for several years have invariably to announce a constant periodical expansion of Life Business, the new Policies of each succeeding year showing an advance over the one that had immediately preceded it. A similar result is shown in the year 1860, the Premiums on New Policies, after deducting Guarantees, being £15,079. 17s. 10d., which is an increase in that item of £1,993. 17s. 5d. above the amount received for the year 1859.

"But even this advance is small when compared with the sudden and remarkable momentum which has been given to this branch of the business in the present year (1861).

"It was not until the commencement of the year that the public seemed to have become fully acquainted with the fact that the Royal Insurance Company had published, late in the last year, an account of the investigation into the assets and liabilities of its Life Department, under a novel form, and in as plain and intelligible a manner as the abstruseness of the subject admitted, together with the entire statements and valuations necessary for that purpose.

"It is conjectured, from the extensive notices of this pamphlet and its accompanying Diagrams, which have appeared in the periodicals of the day, that it has largely attracted the attention of vast numbers of persons in all parts of the United Kingdom, as well as in other parts of the world. Indeed, a most satisfactory and conclusive evidence that such is the case is afforded by the fact that the sum assured on New Policies in the six months to the 3rd June of the present year, is actually 50 per cent. in excess of the Sum Assured in the corresponding months of the year 1860, although the latter amount in itself exceeded the Sum Assured in any like previous period of time.

"If this success be continued, the Royal Insurance Company would, with respect to the amount of its new business, be at once placed (at least with one or two exceptions) at the head of all the Insurance Companies doing business in this country, and the anticipations of the last Report, to the effect that the details of the Life Business then to be published would form an epoch of the Establishment, will have a speedy and very happy realization."

SPECIAL ADVANTAGES OF THE LIFE BRANCH.  
PROFITS.—Large Proportion returned every Five Years to Policies then in existence Two entire Years.</



[Aug. 17, 1861.]

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ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING OF THIS COMPANY

WAS HELD AT  
RADLEY'S HOTEL, ON FRIDAY, AUGUST 9, 1861.

THOMAS BODDINGTON, ESQ., IN THE CHAIR,

And the following Report, for the year ending 30th June, 1861, was read and unanimously adopted :—

The Directors have again to submit their Annual Report to the Proprietors, and they commence it with the following abstract from the Company's books of the Surplus Fund Account :—

## SURPLUS FUND ACCOUNT.

INCOME OF THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1861.			CHARGE OF THE YEAR.
Balance of Account June 30, 1860	£744,118	19	8
Premiums on New Assurances	£19,799	5	7
Ditto on Renewed Assurances	280,374	12	1
	300,173	17	8
Interest from Investments	80,113	1	6
	380,286	19	2
	£1,124,405	18	10
Examined and approved,	THOMAS ALLEN, WILLIAM HENRY SMITH, Jun. } Auditors.		

The total Income is here shown to be £380,286. 19s. 2d., and the total Outgoing to be £337,859. 12s. 7d. The difference—viz. £42,427. 6s. 7d.—goes in augmentation of the Surplus Fund, which now amounts to £786,546. 6s. 3d.

The premiums on new assurances are £19,799. 5s. 7d.—about £200 in excess of those of the previous year; but the renewals are somewhat less than it was to be expected they would be, a greater number of Assurances having run off during the year than usual. The payments on account of re-assurances newly effected amount to £3,763. 1s. 9d.

The realized assets in June, 1860, productive and unproductive, were £1,816,900, after providing for all immediate demands; and this sum has produced in the year £80,113. 1s. 6d., the rate of interest thus realized being rather more than £4. 8s. per cent. per annum.

The amount claimed on decease of lives assured is less than that last reported by about £4,300.

The Assets and Liabilities on the 30th June stood as follows :—

## BALANCE SHEET.

LIABILITIES.	ASSETS.
Interest due to Proprietors	£6,621 15 9
Claims on decease of Lives Assured and additions thereto unpaid	66,608 4 9
Cash Bonus due to Policy-holders	12,446 5 6
Sundry Accounts	5,609 19 8
Value (1857) of Sums Assured, &c.	4,377,392 16 10
Proprietors' Fund	£201,246 0 3
Surplus Fund, as above	786,546 6 3
	987,792 6 6
	£5,456,471 9 0
Examined and Approved,	THOMAS ALLEN, WILLIAM HENRY SMITH, Jun. } Auditors.

This account differs but little from that presented last year. The net assets are, of course, upwards of £42,000 more than they were; and it will be observed that further investments have been made during the year in Government Funds.

As a very full report, both financial and statistical, will have to be made at the next Annual Meeting, the Directors abstain from further observations now. Meanwhile, they are glad to be able to say there is every indication that the laborious investigation about to be entered upon will lead to results of a very satisfactory character.

Explanations were given, and complimentary addresses made, by Mr. Boddington, Dr. Guy, Mr. Seymour Teulon, Mr. Nathaniel Gould, Mr. Cuthbert, Sir James B. East, Bart., M.P., Mr. Joshua Lockwood, and others, and the proceedings terminated.

The Trustees and Directors of the Company are now as follows :—

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# SUPPLEMENT TO THE LONDON REVIEW.

No. 59.]

SATURDAY, AUGUST 17, 1861.

[VOL. III.

## PRACTICAL EDUCATION ; ITS SEASONS, SUBJECTS, AND EFFECTS.

THE most popular theme of the age is the least understood. We are persuaded that many important distinctions are too commonly confounded or overlooked, so that unconscious injury is perpetrated from the best of motives and with the most benevolent of designs. The vast importance of the subject will justify our discussion of it in these columns.

There are three great divisions of time or climacterics in the education, growth, and progress of the young. First, there is the era of impression in infancy and childhood, extending to 2 or 3 years of age; secondly, there is the era of training, extending to about 10 years of age; and, thirdly, there is the era of teaching, which is continued till death.

What is the nature of that era in childhood which we have called the era of impression? All mothers acquainted with the habits of infants know, and can testify how sensitive is the infant heart—how instantaneously receptive of an impression from the minutest object or the faintest shadow that by the merest accident passes over it. So true is this, that characters are formed long before there is intelligence, and outlines are sculptured on the infant heart which the wear and tear of after years are utterly unable to expunge or to efface. It seems as if the very countenance of the parent, the very look of the nurse, left upon the babe in the cradle a deep and lasting impression. It is said by naturalists that you cannot strike a crystal of snow with your foot without causing to vibrate all the particles of the round globe itself; a cloud cannot pass through the sky on a sunny summer day, without making an impression on the green grass field over which it sweeps. If this be true in the physical, so it may be taken to be true in the moral world, that the cloud that sweeps over the countenance of the mother may leave an impression on the heart of the child; an impulse accidentally given by a look may not be without its effect; and such an impulse, however minute and trivial it may appear to us, may leave a lasting and indelible impression. We therefore would urge on every nurse, and governess, and mother, to whose hands is entrusted a charge so precious as the rearing of a child, and whose ultimate influence for good or evil no one can foresee, that a sombre look, a gloomy countenance, an angry expression, may be formative and creative of influences upon the charge committed to their care, which no labour in after years may be able to do away with.

Let, therefore, the presence of a mother or a nurse in the nursery in the midst of infants be a sunny and a joyous presence. Rather sacrifice the splendours of the drawing-room than make the nursery gloomy, dark, and ungenial. Let its furniture be bright; let flowers be in it; let its be not a dim but a bright, religious light; let the soothing accents of song and of music be heard in it, for great men and noble men have often remarked that, when they have forgotten all that transpired in infancy, the first song that was sung in the nursery by a mother has perpetuated its musical echoes in their hearts, as if to teach us that infant songs and nursery rhymes are child-like but not childish things, and productive of deep and permanent impressions. We have heard of artists who were able so to paint the most exquisite landscapes that the outlines were invisible when finished; but that the moment they were exposed to the sunlight they appeared in all their beauty. Nurses, governesses, mothers, guardians, whoever may have the care of infants under three years of age, are like the painter of old whose boast it was, that he painted for eternity. They are tracing, insensibly, it may be unsuspectedly, upon the receptive tablets of the infant heart outlines which the glare of life will bring up into prominence, and which all the wear of life will never be able to expunge. The mind of a child gets its lessons at school; but the heart of a child gets its polarity in the cradle, in the nursery, on its mother's breast.

We must next consider the era of training; or that period in the life of a child which extends from 2 or 3 to 8, 9, or 10 years of age. Till a child is 10 years of age, the less we teach from the book, and the more we train by example, the more conformably we act to the peculiarities of the infant nature. Of all shocking sights not the least so is what is called a precocious child; and that parent neither understands his duty, nor understands the nature of the child committed to his care, who stimulates its already feeble intellect, excites its whole mental, moral, and intellectual force; makes it a prodigy in the nursery, that it may be a fool when it enters upon the work of active and of busy life. During the first ten years the less we teach children from a book the better. It is no discredit to have a backward child; on the contrary, if we find children at 9 or 10 years of age scarcely able to read, with no bright thoughts, capable of no brilliant remarks, we might often be right in congratulating the parents; but when we find a child at 6 or 7 years of age preternaturally brilliant, it is a call to watchfulness; and a warning too, for such excessive stimulus of the mind tends to disorganize the unformed brain, to weaken all its powers; and instead of assisting its education, we are positively impeding it to the greatest possible degree. Teach a child obedience; teach and inspire joyous thoughts; train it to practices that are just, and beautiful, and true; but do not stimulate its intellect. The brain, as any physician will tell us, is not properly formed till 10 or 11 years of age; and, if the brain be the working-hand of the mind, and if we exhaust that organ by excessive toil, we treat it in a way in which we would not treat the chisel of

foot or the child's hand. We take care of inferior organs, that we do not overtask their strength, why then should we suffer an organ more important than them all to be overtired and exhausted; injuring the child's health, and neglecting the main duty, which, under ten years of age, is not to teach, but to train the child.

The importance of this training is so great, that all teaching, even when the child is capable of being taught, will be worthless if we omit training. A gardener is not satisfied with giving the vine a random direction; he trains it upon the wall in the direction which he wishes it to pursue. A recruit would never become a soldier by studying the usages, the laws, or the articles of war. Were a recruit placed in action with no other training than the knowledge derived in the academy of the different matters connected with siege, defence, and assault, the first roll of musketry would frighten him, the first smoke of the enemy's camp would make him a runaway. A sailor never could be taught navigation in the academy only; were a man taught only in the school how to act on deck in a gale of wind, he would lose all self-possession, all heart, and all courage. We train the soldier and sailor as well as teach them. And what common sense applies to communities, it no less teaches us to apply to that higher object, the cultivation, the training, and tuition of the young.

It is easy to see how this training is possible in childhood, while it becomes impossible in after years. The gnarled oak, that has battled with the breeze, and basked in the sunbeams of a hundred years, no giant can change or alter; but when it was a sapling, a child might have bent it in any direction that he pleased. The mighty river, as it nears the sea, can hardly be altered in its direction; but if we go to the mountain from which it leaps a tiny and a silver rill, we may guide it as we please. It is so with the child; you may give the child, before ten years of age, any direction that you please; you may make or you may mar that child; for the acts of the child, often repeated, become the practices of the man, and the practices of the man become the habits of old age, and those habits are fixed and perpetuated for ever.

Here, then, we see the great importance of beginning to train at that age when the child will soon leave its leading-strings, and begin to think, reflect, and be capable of being taught. And while we are thus training the child, and avoiding what has been already indicated, the perilous work of teaching even what is good, lest we over-stimulate the brain through which we must teach,—let us remember that even a child under ten years of age is not incapable of understanding just what we do not want him to understand, and of learning just where we do not wish him to learn. If, therefore, we wish to avoid inflicting irreparable injury upon the sensitive and susceptible mind of the child we are training, but not yet teaching, let us give a piece of useful advice to parents. Never say a word in the hearing of children under ten years of age—for of such we are now speaking—which you do not wish them to understand. A child understands far more than it can express or than we imagine; and, at all events, if you have used at random an expression which you do not wish that child to understand, do not attempt to give the words you have uttered a twist in the opposite direction; for the child has sagacity to see through the trick, and one act of detected hypocrisy will leave a shadow on its mind that you will never be able to efface.

It is essential to rule children less by law, and more by love. Neither your nursery nor your school ought to be planted on Mount Sinai; your child should be taught to walk not by bribes, but by obedience and trust. But if you say to your children, "Do this, and I will punish you; do that, and I will reward you,"—that is a mercenary treatment. We should train and teach children the habit of putting confidence in parents, and showing that that confidence in them leads to reward; we are then training children under a purer and better law, and in a brighter sunshine; and your child will do what you bid it, just because it is always sure that you will bid it do what is right, and the reward will be added.

There is recorded an interesting incident of Cecil, the celebrated minister of St. John's Chapel, Bedford-row; his child had a beautiful necklace; he said to her one day—she was only ten years of age—"Throw that necklace in the fire." The necklace cost a good deal of money; the child seemed very much shocked, but as her father had never bid her do what was wrong, she was so satisfied that there must be some meaning in it that she could not penetrate, that she threw it into the fire. A fortnight afterwards he bought her a necklace worth twice the money, and gave it to her, and he said, "You did first what I bade you, because you had confidence in me; I now add the reward of such confidence." In training young children we should never associate religion with what is sombre and melancholy beyond what is absolutely necessary. Many worthy Christians never speak of religion to their children without looking very gloomy, and in some cases almost very sulky, as if there were something about religion very awful, and not very easy or pleasant to be talked about. This is the way to make children monks and nuns, for we associate religion, the happiest inspiration of the universe, with what is conventional, ascetic, and gloomy. Intertwine its doctrines with all life's festivals and joys, with the sunshine as well as with the shadow on life's dial, at bridals as well as at burials; you need not make religion a masquerade, nor accept for a preacher a mere master of ceremonies; yet you may have in the place of public worship a brightness of hope, a warmth of feeling, a joyousness of heart, that will enable the young to see, what they are quick at discovering, that religion has made you not only a wiser, but also a much happier man.



Another very important duty is never to make anything in religion or connected with religion a punishment. It is most injurious to say to a child, "You have done wrong; therefore go and learn a hymn," or, "You have erred in something; therefore you must go and commit to memory a collect." This is a destructive prescription; it associates prayer with what is penal, it makes that which should be happiness and privilege to be all pain. Again, parents ought to find, as far as possible, amusement for their children. There are parents who have got the notion that their children ought not to be amused. Let such person go out at springtide to the common or to the fields, and look at the young lambs; see how they play. It is as necessary and as natural for a child to play as it is for it to eat, or drink, or walk; and, if we do not provide for what nature has inspired as a beautiful and beneficial instinct, it will provide for itself, either then or afterwards, more objectionable substitutes. Therefore, find amusement for children as a sacred duty; find it at home, and then it will be less sought abroad. Let home by all means be solemn, but do not let it be conventional and sad. Home may be happy without being an opera; there is a solemnity which is not sadness, and there is an enjoyment which is not theatrical; and common sense, inspired by Christian principle, will guide every parent, and governess, and guardian of children to what is right, and just, and proper in this respect. So much, then, for the training of children.

The third branch, one more intelligible and obvious, and one perhaps which we are all more competent to grasp, is the teaching of children. What are we to teach children? Teach them secular knowledge most certainly. To rail against secular knowledge looks as if God were in the sanctuary only, but not in the wide world; as if He were only in the Bible, and not in all books that truly describe nature's broad and beautiful phenomena. We wish children to be taught history, to be taught all forms of literature and science, and all that constitutes what is called secular, or everyday knowledge; we only complain when men teach this exclusively, or when they teach it so that they exclude from it that which ought to inspire and enoble it—scriptural instruction. We should try to make children, not Churchmen, for it is easy to make these; not Dissenters, for it is no less easy to make these; but to teach them how and by whom they may be made Christians. Bigotry would restrain all to one sect; latitudinarianism tells us it does not matter what creed you believe, nor even if you believe no creed at all; but Christianity is truly liberal, and therefore it restricts to no one sect; but it is also truly uncompromising, and therefore it asserts and maintains the necessity of vital and essential truth. Teach your children, therefore, when they are capable of being taught, that love is force, that right is in the long run might, that benevolence is really happiness, and obedience the greatest satisfaction that can be reaped in this world.

There are thousands of children who have no parents, or, what is worse parents that are totally indifferent whether their children be taught right, or taught wrong, or taught at all; and it becomes the duty of those that have the means to give liberally those means, that such children may be suitably, efficiently, and properly taught. We should try to bring up from the depths, from the deep strata and the subsoil of London and our great cities, those now hidden gems that may be so polished that they will flash the light, and find a place in a brighter world. Better fill our country with well instructed men than cover it with basilicas, cathedrals, and palatial residences. The last fire will calcine the noblest edifice that man can raise; but no fire can scathe the humblest orphan that we have well and wisely educated. When we read of children brought before our police courts, and sentenced to Bridewell or to penal punishment for their own misdoings, we cannot help feeling that whatever their crime be, and we would not deny or extenuate it, the great responsibility rests somewhere else. Consider the real case of the neglected poor children; they are brought into a world in which, as far as their horizon goes, there is no bright sunshine, no welcoming congratulation; and, alas! most terrible reversal of nature's instinct, when a mother does not rejoice that a man child is born into the world. When that child begins to be able to move about, it never sees what children ought to see, a beautiful toy. And that father, who, coming home from business, buys toys on his way for his children, we always judge to be a judicious and wise father. But that poor child has never had a toy; it has never heard the soothing notes of a mother's lullaby; if it cries, it is beaten; if it feels pain, it is unsympathized with. A wretched blanket covers it by night, and is its only clothing by day; and in the words of an old nurse, "The children of the poor are dragged up, they are not brought up." Now, that poor child, never taught the beauty of truth, never taught the atrocity of a lie, comes to grow up to ten or twelve years of age; the police constable's eye has been early upon it, because he knows that it is a victim for him. It has one day to starve, the next day to beg, and the next day to steal. It is brought before a magistrate; it is sent to Bridewell; and what is the result? It comes out of Bridewell worse; and what is more, it finds in Bridewell a comfort, a warmth, and a decency that it never found in its own home; and it is literally true in the debased districts of our metropolis, that children will positively steal in order to get back to prison, because they are better taken care of; and present themselves to the gaolers, telling them they are too happy to get back again!

Were our rulers, our statesmen, our senators, whose words have weight, to make the homes of the honest poor more healthy and better, and lay less out upon Bridewells, and more upon St. Giles's, they would do much more, more than they expect, for the elevation of our country, and the inspiration of its population with a love that will not falter, and an admiration that will not grow cold. If, then, such things are taking place around us, what is our duty? It is to be teachers of these children. Every husband who has no children of his own, ought in his own private heart to determine to be a teacher of the outcast, the uneducated, and the poor. Every one who is neither a husband nor a parent ought to feel it his duty, his sacred duty, to aid in beneficent educational works. Do we wish the taxation that we complain of lightened? The schoolmaster is worth a dozen Chancellors of the Exchequer in accomplishing this. One good schoolmaster will save the expense of two gaolers; and a few cheap schools will render unnecessary some of those magnificent Bridewells, which look like palaces for the great and good instead of prison-houses for the criminal. The expense of the punishment of crime is tenfold the expense of its prevention. We appeal to men of business. Do you wish apprentices, clerks, porters, that you can trust; men that will not be young Robsons or germinating Redpaths, but honest, industrious, dutiful

to you, trustworthy when anything is committed to their hands, aid the education of the young? We do not expect that every child we turn out of the very best schools will prove a perfect saint, a martyr, or a hero; but we do maintain (as has been proved in Dundee), that in any large town, however degraded and debased, juvenile vagrancy may be almost put an end to by multiplying schools for the education of the poor and the vagrant. Merchants who have goods at sea would sleep more sweetly by night, and be less perplexed by fears by day—and perhaps their insurances at Lloyd's would be lighter, if they had honest sailors, trustworthy captains, and all the guarantee that moral character can give. Do we wish to have in our beloved Queen's navy trusty sailors, in her army heroes who will reflect honour on the colours of their country? Do we wish, in short, to use the popular aphorism, to have the right men in the right place, always and everywhere? We can only advance our object through sound education. Do we wish what is talked of in the press and in Parliament, the reformation of Parliament? What is the best way of doing it? If people were to exercise a little common sense, they would see that our members of Parliament must be just what the electors are; and if we can only secure Christian, patriotic, enlightened electors, we must have enlightened, patriotic, and upright representatives in the House of Commons. If we electors are what we should be, and do our duties, we may depend upon it there will be none to represent us but those who truly and justly do so. In this age of ours, and in this country, and under our constitution, a member of Parliament is less a legislator and more the agent of the people, who are, after all, the true legislators; and we know well that a law passed by an unanimous Parliament, if it have no response in the conscience of the people, will never be honoured or observed by them; whereas it is now found to be the fact, that the law that binds is generated by the people that are bound by it; the force of any law has its strength and its root in the moral conscience of the people. Great, therefore, is the necessity in this country, of all countries upon earth, of an educated, enlightened, intelligent population. We may remind those who tread the loftier levels of this world, that much of the splendour that shines above, is dependent on the stability of what is hid below. The higher ranks are sometimes tempted to think that they are not affected by the popular currents; they are sometimes tempted to believe that they may leave St. Giles's to demoralization, degradation, and moral wreck, and still be safe in Belgravia. But they are utterly mistaken. No one can rise in the air above the law of attraction or gravitation. If the earth be convulsed, the foundations of their castle are sure to be shaken; if the basis of the pyramid be shattered, the apex will not remain.

By each doing what he can, all will be accomplished that is possible. In general we are too much beset with transcendental notions; we have too great an idea that if we could build some magnificent castle in the air, a wonderful transformation would take place. But one brick laid upon the earth is a greater contribution to that castle, than if built in our dreams a thousand times over in the air; and if each individual would only do what he can towards the grand result, that grand result would be achieved. They are the tiny dew-drops glistening on the heather-bell that constitute the rills that pour down the mountain brow, that in their aggregate form the Highland stream, that, swelled by other tributaries, form the great river, and bear the navies of the world on its bosom, and the treasures of Australia and California to our shores. It is by the aggregate of little liberalities that magnificent results are thus triumphantly achieved.

There are deserts that lie not across the ocean, but in the midst of our own metropolis; there are jungles not in India, but in London, into which no sunshine penetrates. Let us study not the distant heathen, but those who know life only in its burdens, not in its blessings; only in its wants, never in its fulness. Why talk about missions to the heathen, when heathenism is overflowing us at home? If everybody in London would sweep his own door when there has been a snow-storm, then all the streets of London would be quite clean; and if each would do all that he can towards the removal of a terrible evil, and the accomplishment of a capital good, then that good would, to a very great extent, be accomplished. Our country at this moment is increasing in prosperity, in splendour, in character. While England seems to wield a giant's strength, may she have a Christian's heart to wield it. We hope the winds of heaven may never blow a British ship beyond the place where the Christianity of England sends the blessings of Christian education. At this moment the sun never sets upon our royal empire; new accessions are constantly made to it.

There is no wind that can blow that does not fill the sails of our ships; there is no sea that does not wet the keels of England's royal or mercantile fleet; there is no ocean which she does not navigate; there is no strand on which she does not drop her anchor; our country's flag waves in every quarter of the globe; the boom of our country's cannon is still the signal to the oppressed that there is deliverance, and to the oppressor that there is an avenger. If such be our power, our increasing power, our expanding power, it should be our effort, each in his place, that wheresoe'er our country's power is felt, mankind may feel her blessings and her mercies too.

If, then, we desire to see growing up around us an enlightened population; if we would raise up in our country the cheap defence of nations, an educated people; if we would hand down the blessings we have received from our ancestors—if not augmented, at least not impaired—let us educate, or give the means of educating, the masses that are around us. If we would endear our country, which is, after all, our common home, to the exile, and the colonist, and the emigrant to distant lands, so that he shall look back to home, that representative memorial of griefs and gladness, of hopes and sorrows; that memorial of all that has brightened human eyes and convulsed human hearts, the remembrance of which starts a thousand sleeping memories, and the reminiscence of which in old age, as if planted in the very deepest soil of the human heart, grows clearer as years accumulate and the memory grows feebler; if we would make that home worthy of being recalled; if we would lead colonist, and emigrant, and exile, to refer to it as the centre of their expectations, and the source of their blessings; let us make it what sound teaching can make it. If the homes of our country be poor, let them have a light from heaven that leads to heaven; let us instil into their inmates a love of goodness that no temptation can corrupt, a piety that no woe can shake, a patience that by a blessed alchemy distils balm from the wormwood of the bitterest tribulation, and a charity in the hearts of the poor that gives its last mite, and grieves that it has no more to bestow.

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## Reviews of Books.

## HENRY IV.\*

(Continued from page 182.)

THERE was no question whatever but that the King of Navarre was the legal heir to the throne, and he immediately assumed it, with the title of Henry IV., which he has rendered so illustrious.

But he was not without competitors. His relationship to the late king was extremely distant; and his profession of the reformed faith raised him up one rival in the person of his own uncle, the Cardinal Bourbon, whom the League at once proclaimed under the name of Charles X., a title worn by no real sovereign of France till, in our own times, it distinguished one who was equally the slave of the priests with this first assumer of it, and whom his weak compliance with their arrogant bigotry involved in still greater misfortunes. At the same time Philip of Spain claimed the kingdom for his daughter, whose mother had been Elizabeth of Valois, sister of the two last kings. The Salic law, as is well known, rendered this claim untenable; but Philip denounced that enactment as a relic of a barbarous age, and for some years this claim furnished him with a pretext for interfering in the affairs of France; though in effect it often strengthened Henry IV., by the divisions which it caused among some of the principal nobles of the League, who were eager to offer themselves as husbands to a princess who might perchance bring them so magnificent a dowry.

It was very fortunate for the new sovereign that he was with the army when the crown thus unexpectedly became vacant, since he was thus able to take instant advantage of the necessity which pressed upon its chiefs, to decide without loss of time on whom they would acknowledge for their king. He was not wanting to himself. It was easy to convince them that from his competitors they had everything to fear; while from himself, except in the single article of religion, they had everything to hope; and even in this particular he showed all the eagerness which they could desire to give them satisfaction, promising them ample security for the professors of the Roman Catholic religion, and expressing a willingness to be instructed himself in its tenets and to submit to the decision of a general council of the Gallican Church. It may be true that this offer shows, as his subsequent conduct showed also, a certain indifference to forms of religious belief; indeed, the general tenour of his life proved him careless, in many most important points, of any obligations of religion; but this consideration must not deprive him of the credit to which he is entitled as the first person who had ever practised or even preached the doctrine of religious toleration in the world. Many of the fiercest persecutors had been quite as profligate in their lives as himself; the contrivers of the St. Bartholomew massacre and Philip II. of Spain were in no whit superior to him; our own Queen Elizabeth, if she wanted the vice which most distinguished him, was certainly free from no other; and, if she was open to any religious influences at all, undoubtedly preferred some of the leading doctrines of the Roman Catholics to those of the Reformers; so that Henry is fairly entitled to have the liberality of which he set the first example on this subject, placed to the account of his own natural magnanimity and humanity.

To all thinking people, if there were any such in France in that day, the indecent exultation shown by the heads of the League, both male and female, when the death of Henry III. was ascertained, must have appeared as unnatural as it was disgusting. Mayenne and his sister laid aside the mourning which hitherto they had worn for their brother Guise, and in holiday robes drove exulting through the city. The Duchesse de Nemours harangued the populace on the joyful event; raised a public subscription for the mother of the assassin; invited her to Paris, and greeted her in the words of Scripture as blessed among women. This being their feeling, it was no wonder that the advances which Henry made to Mayenne proved fruitless; and as many of the nobles also who had owned him as King, were yet unwilling to compromise themselves too deeply in his cause, and had on various pretexts retired from his camp, he found himself compelled to retreat from Paris, and fell back towards the coast of Normandy, in the hopes of there meeting some English reinforcements which had been promised him by Elizabeth. His whole force was scarcely 7,000 men; and with these he began to fortify a strong position at Arques, a village in the neighbourhood of Dieppe, when he was overtaken by Mayenne at the head of a veteran army of at least four times his number. So certain did the chief of the League feel of victory, that he actually selected couriers to bear the news of it to Paris before striking a single blow,—but when he came up with his enemy, he did not find it easy to strike one. So skilfully had the king's preparations been made, that the duke lay nearly a week in front of his lines before he could devise a plan for assailing them.

At last Mayenne obtained means of bringing on the battle which he desired through a stratagem of some of his German regiments, who, by feigning to have deserted, procured entrance within the trenches of the town. The surprise, when they turned their arms against those who had admitted them, had nearly proved decisive, and would have been quite so had it not been for the undaunted heroism of Henry himself, who, with prodigious exertions, and amid the most imminent personal danger, shouting his war-cry, and demanding to know which of his nobles would die with their king, rallied his troops, and at last beat back his assailants; still, as the loss which he had inflicted on them did not exceed 500 or 600 men, general of resolution equal to his own would have had ample time, since there still were ample means in the army of the League, to retrieve that repulse; but Mayenne's valour was of too cold a kind for such an enterprise. He at once broke up his camp, and retreated towards Picardy, in the hope of meeting some Spanish reinforcements which were on their way from the Flemish frontier to join him. But, after the day of Arques, no reinforcements could avail him; that brief combat, for it hardly deserved the name of a battle, was in effect decisive of the war by the stamp which it affixed on the characters of the contending leaders. And this was the view universally taken of it. Even the Pope now predicted the eventual triumph of Henry, because, as he said, he did not spend as much time in bed as Mayenne did at his dinner. Elizabeth was encouraged to send him troops, and Venice lent him money, of which he had almost greater need; but the most singular proof of the impression which his defeat of Mayenne produced upon Europe is to be found in the proposal made by James of Scotland, afterwards James I. of England, who, though at once the most needy and the most cowardly of princes, offered to bring 6,000 Scots to reinforce the royal army, to be commanded by himself, and maintained at his own expense.

Still more advantageous to Henry than even this warlike ally were the divisions which his success awakened among the chiefs of the League. Philip, who was at all times most pertinacious in his adherence to any plan which he had ever formed, was not less eager than before to support it; but in Mayenne's difficulties he thought he perceived an additional opportunity of advancing his own

interests, and the manifestation of his ulterior designs did the cause which he espoused more injury than could have been inflicted by his desertion of it.

Without a moment's delay Henry marched upon Paris, carried the suburbs, and was preparing to storm the city itself the next day, when Mayenne arrived to its relief. Henry fell back and took up a position a few miles from the city, in expectation of a battle; but Mayenne was not eager for such an encounter, and lay in strange supineness in the capital while the King overran the country around, making himself master of many important towns and cutting off the supplies of food which his enemy was expecting. At last he laid siege to Dreux, and thither Mayenne, who had now been joined by large reinforcements, advanced to try the fortune of a second battle. On March 14, 1590, it was fought at Ivry. The result is known to every one who has ever heard the name of Henry IV. His heroic courage was as conspicuous as (it could not be more so than) it had been at Arques. "In any difficulty," was his command to his nobles, "rally to my white plume;" and all through the day that white plume was seen towering amid the thickest of the fray. His skill and promptitude, too, were displayed in many a manoeuvre and evolution, till the Leaguers were broken in every direction. Mayenne retreated all that evening and all the next day, till he reached St. Denis, and there he left his half-brother, the Duc de Nemours, in command, to defend Paris, which it was certain would soon be again attacked; while he himself repaired to Flanders to concert his further measures with the great Duke of Parma. We are hardly in possession of all the causes which retarded the movements of Henry at this moment, though the jealousy and lukewarmness of his Roman Catholic followers were among the most prominent of them, and others may, it is said, be found in his pursuit of two fresh objects of attraction: one of these, Marie de Beauvilliers, though an abbess, was of a complaisant nature when her love was sought by a king; but the other, Madame de Guercheville, reminded him that the promise of eventual marriage which he held out to her had already been given to at least two other ladies of rank, and, declaring that she esteemed herself too lowly to become his wife, and too high to become his mistress, stimulated his passion further by a resistance to which he was unaccustomed, but of which, to his honour be it said, he recognized and rewarded the virtue when he found it indomitable.

At the end of a fortnight Henry advanced a second time against the capital; by this time Nemours had greatly strengthened its defences, but he had been unable to supply it with provisions; and the distress to which the investment of the city speedily reduced the inhabitants exceeds the horrors recorded in the history of any siege of modern times. The wretched citizens were in comparative comfort while devouring the vermin found in their houses, and the grass which grew in the streets; when that resource was exhausted, they violated the graveyards, and made a paste of the bones of the dead, though it was presently ascertained that food so unnatural only aggravated even the pangs of starvation by disease. Mothers were known to tear their own dead children from their coffins to devour them. It seemed that the city must fall into the King's hands, and that it did not do so, was owing solely to his own humanity. He would not storm it, because he had reason to apprehend that the Huguenots in his army had resolved to avenge upon the citizens the atrocities of the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day; and he could not steel his heart against the tales of horror that came to his ears, and against the shocking appearance of some, who in despair, threw themselves from the battlements, and being brought before him, emaciated and lacerated as they were by the sentinels, extorted from him an act of most unmilitary compassion for their misery. He gave passes to thousands of non-combatants, allowing them to quit the city. Their departure left a little more food for those who remained behind; but even that little was nearly exhausted, and it was reckoned by the garrison themselves that their resistance could only be protracted for four more days, when the Duke of Parma, whom the entreaties of Mayenne had prevailed on to move in person to the salvation of so all-important a place, arrived at the head of 15,000 men, with whom he joined the army which Mayenne had left at Meaux. Henry, whose army now exceeded 20,000 men, hastened to meet him, and would gladly have ventured a battle, but in the great Spanish general he had met with his superior in the art of war. Parma would not be compelled to fight a battle which was inconsistent with his plans; and, confiding on his own skill, was neither to be moved by his active demonstrations, nor by a verbal defiance which Henry sent him by an ambassador. He took Lagny on the Marne before his eyes, and, having thus secured a constant road for the conveyance of supplies to the besieged metropolis, and rendered its capture hopeless, he returned to the Netherlands, his absence from which country, short as it had been, had proved very disadvantageous to Philip, through the energy with which the Prince of Orange had taken advantage of it. So profound, however, had been the military skill with which he had established Paris in safety, that during all the remaining years of the war Henry was never able to renew the siege of it.

Parma was again drawn from Flanders at the beginning of the following year, by the danger of Rouen, of which Henry had undertaken the siege principally to gratify Queen Elizabeth, who at first demanded, as the price of the aid which she furnished to him, that he should cede to her a port on the British Channel, and who was with difficulty induced to abandon so unreasonable a demand by his promise to grant great commercial advantages and privileges to the English when he should have become master of Rouen. To relieve so important a city, the duke brought a second army into France. Villars, the governor, defended it with great skill and resolution, and severe skirmishes took place, in one or other of which both the King and the duke were wounded. Henry, who was the first hurt, was the first to recover, and took advantage of the crippled state of the duke to hem him in between his own position and the river; so that for a moment the duke seemed to have no prospect before him but that of surrender. The danger roused him, though very ill, from his sick bed, when by consummate ability he extricated his army from its dangers, conducting it across the Seine before Henry dreamt of such a measure being in contemplation. This was the crowning exploit of his magnificent career. Before the end of the year he died of the wound he had received before Rouen, leaving behind him a military reputation at that time unequalled in the modern history of war, and the still greater glory of having, as far as lay in his power, mitigated the cruelties with which the unrelenting tyrant whom he served desired to chastise the Dutch for the rebellion into which his bigotry had driven them.

With his death the chief interest of the war in a great measure ceases. Henry had no longer an enemy able to cope with him in the field. Peace, indeed, was still distant; but if, as was the case, many of the bravest and noblest chiefs in the kingdom,—such as Biron and Joyeuse,—fell on one side or the other, they perished in petty skirmishes, or under the walls of insignificant towns; no single action ever taking place which was calculated to have any decisive effect on the result of the war, the issue of which it was soon apparent would be decided by other events than those of the battle-field, and would depend, not on Henry's superiority over his enemies as a general, but on the degree in which he might be able, by statesmanlike acts or patriotic virtues, to conciliate their hostility or allay their suspicions.

\* History of the Reign of Henry IV. of France. By Miss Freer. Henry IV. and Marie de Medici. By Miss Freer. Hurst & Blackett.

But neither the cares of the statesman, nor the higher virtues of the patriot, dictated the thoughts which chiefly engrossed Henry at this time. He had lately become the slave of a new passion which wholly engrossed him; and which, in the prosecution of his suit, led him to a course of action of such a character that the chief impression which it makes on us is one of astonishment at the strange tone of feeling which must have existed at that time, when conduct such as his did not cause him to be regarded as a perfect monster, not only of licentiousness, but of tyranny. He was at the height of his admiration for Madame de Beauvilliers, when at a party, where female beauty was the principal theme of conversation, the Duc de Bellegarde, one of the most distinguished and faithful of his partisans, inadvertently praised the appearance of the lady to whom he was betrothed, Gabrielle d'Estrées, the youngest daughter of the Marquis de Cœuvres, as superior to that of any damsel in France. The more the reality of her charms was doubted by the courtiers who were unacquainted with her, the more did he persist in his eulogy of them, till he excited Henry's desire to see the beauty whose excellence had made so deep an impression on her lover. The duke himself invited his scrutiny, but soon had reason to repent his confidence in his master, though the lady was long constant to him, and strove hard to preserve her fidelity. And such behaviour was the more commendable in her in that purity of conduct had not been the virtue most prized among the females of her family.

The moment that Henry saw her he acknowledged the justice of Bellegarde's panegyric; and instantly resolved to deprive him of his prize. She steadily repelled his suit; she was really attached to Bellegarde; she was also well aware of the fleeting character of the King's attachments; and was firm in her determination to prefer an honourable alliance with one of her own rank, to the more splendid dishonour of a Diane de Poitiers, or a Marie Souchet. Her resistance only inflamed Henry's passion, till, becoming hopeless of succeeding while the engagement of the lady to M. de Bellegarde continued, he presumed so far on his royal authority as to threaten that nobleman with his personal resentment if he did not resign his claim to Gabrielle's hand, warning him with too significant plainness, that "neither in war nor in love would he endure a rival."

Bellegarde retired from the field; in those days a subject in France had no other choice, and Gabrielle was in despair. Not only was she deprived of this alliance, on which she had set her heart, but the same influence operated to prevent any other desirable suitor from approaching her. Her own father, too, feared to listen to proposals from any other quarter. Meanwhile Henry was unremitting in his attentions; though his notes were returned unopened he ceased not to write, though his presents were rejected he laid them in endless profusion at her feet. In the midst of some important military operations, when surrounded on all sides by the bands of the enemy, he quitted his camp, disguised as a woodman, to pay her a visit at her father's castle. She had by this time learnt to despair of an honourable union with M. de Bellegarde, and the assiduity of a monarch, well practised in all the elegant attentions of a lover, began to produce its effect on her fancy. She was also not without ambition, and it is probable that Henry had already held out to her the hope, which he subsequently was eager to realise, that he would eventually divorce his existing queen, and make her his wife. The lover and the King triumphed; but the next step in the arrangement presents a curious illustration of the manners of the age and its principles (if such a term can be so used without profanation). M. de Cœuvres had overcome his objections, if he had ever had any, to his daughter's becoming the King's mistress; but he felt that his family honour would be impeached if she were not married to some one. To the King she could not be married since he had a wife already; so an elderly widower, with a large ready-made family, was found, a Baron de Liancour, whose admiration for Gabrielle was so great that he was willing to share her with his sovereign, at least that apparently was his expectation; but such was not the intention of the lady, nor of Henry. Henry promised to carry her off within an hour of her marriage; and in full trust in this promise she joined her vows at the altar with those of the baron. She was deceived in her confidence; the charms of the city of Paris were more attractive even than her own, and the very day of her nuptials, the hope of making himself master of the capital had carried the King to St. Denis, where d'Eperven, Nevers, La Noue, and Biron had prepared a plan for surprising it, on which they surely reckoned for success. But the vigilance of M. de Belin, the governor, baffled their well laid stratagem; and Henry returned to his camp to console himself for his discomfiture by a triumph of a different kind. He invited the newly married couple to attend him, and, as soon as they arrived, banished the husband from his Court, commanding him to spend the rest of his days at a castle which he possessed in a distant province, while he detained the lady, a willing captive to his authority and his love.

For the next eight years Gabrielle assumed the state and possessed all the influence of a legitimate queen. Henry boasted, apparently with truth, of his absolute fidelity to her, and in every way showed that his affection for her was sincere and permanent. He was a little jealous at first of M. de Bellegarde, whom he suspected of still retaining some hold upon her heart. He was sometimes provoked at her extravagance, and at her quarrels with Rosny, and once or twice roused himself, at that minister's remonstrances, to assert a will of his own, and to reprove her injustice to the statesman whom he so deservedly esteemed. But the praises which he gave himself for even such momentary resistance to her pleasure, showed how dearly it cost him; and on every such occasion he purchased forgiveness by increased submission. He created her a marchioness, a duchess; he passed formal edicts, legitimizing the children which she bore him, and declaring them capable of inheriting the Crown in default of immediate heirs of the Royal Family; and there can be little doubt that he would have eventually raised her to the throne had not this design been prevented by her sudden death.

The war, as has been said, languished; its operations, as far as the King was concerned, being impeded by the most absolute want of pecuniary resources which ever embarrassed a sovereign,—it forbade the supply of even his personal necessities. The monarch of two kingdoms was forced at times to seek at the table of one of his nobles a meal which he could not find at his own; and even when thus relieved of the expense of a dinner, he did not find it easy to make a decent appearance as a guest, having scarcely more shirts or pocket-handkerchiefs than were to be found in Sir John Falstaff's army, when its ragged appearance moved the wrath of that not overnice commander. Fortunately Mayenne's difficulties were also great, while he failed to encounter them with the steady constancy of the King. His incessant vacillation ensured, as it deserved, eventual failure. At one moment he sought to make terms with Henry. At another, he offered to proclaim the Spanish Infanta Queen, provided Philip would marry her to his son the Duc d'Aiguillon; while Philip was either slow in deciding on his precise plans, or else in announcing them to his French partisans; and had not the Spanish troops, who formed a part of the garrison of Paris, by their presence in France given him a hold upon the kingdom which it was difficult to loosen, Mayenne's mingled jealousy and weakness would have dissolved the alliance which subsisted between them.

As the weakness of the League and of its chief became more and more apparent, many of the most influential nobles deserted it, and came over to Henry, and it gradually became plain that the chief obstacle to the king's complete triumph was his religion. As may be easily supposed, his adherence to the side of the Huguenots was not founded on any deep theological convictions, or on any especial devotional principles. He had passed some years of his childhood at the court of Paris, where he had been educated by Catharine de Medicis as a Roman Catholic; and though, on his return to Pau, his mother, who was a woman of the most sincere piety, had eradicated these errors from his heart, or had at least given him another profession, the exceeding strictness of her discipline had not been calculated to attach him greatly to the Calvinistic doctrines which she substituted for the indulgent laxity of the Parisian priests. He had, as we have seen, renounced Protestantism under the compulsion of the threats of Charles IX., but had resumed his profession of that creed on his escape from Paris. So that having been already twice a Roman Catholic, and twice a Protestant, another change was not likely to be very repugnant to his conscience. And the political advantages of such a step were manifest and incontestable. Even those of his partisans, who were the most attached to the Huguenot persuasion themselves, admitted that unless he became a Roman Catholic, he could never hope to be universally acknowledged as King of France. At his first accession he had recognized this fact by the promise which he had made to allow himself to be instructed in the Roman Catholic doctrines; and to every other motive was now added the influence of Gabrielle, ambitious for his sake, as feeling her own aggrandisement to be deeply involved in the establishment of his authority; clear-sighted enough to see that to that establishment his reconciliation was indispensable; devout, too, after her fashion, and not unwilling to make a merit with the heads of the Roman Catholic party, both in and out of France, of her share in effecting a conversion of such importance.

To these manifold considerations Henry yielded; but, before he did so, to his great honour, he resolved to secure to those whose creed he was about to abandon, full security for the exercise of their religion; and in a council solemnly assembled for that purpose, he formally abolished all existing edicts which imposed any disabilities on the Huguenots, and issued a declaration establishing complete religious toleration. He then admitted a chosen body of Roman Catholic divines to discuss the principal tenets of their faith in his presence, requiring particular instruction on the article of the Papal supremacy. On that of the mass he had, he said, always agreed with them. With some forgetfulness of ecclesiastical history, the prelates declared the Pope's supremacy to be wholly spiritual, and denied that he claimed any power in affairs purely temporal; and when this point was once cleared up, other questions were not very perplexing to them, when their auditor was predetermined to be convinced. On the 25th of July, 1593, in the cathedral of St. Denis, the Archbishop of Bourges formally admitted Henry into the Roman Catholic Church. Many of the chief prelates of the kingdom, and the Cardinal de Bourbon (nephew of him who had been proclaimed as Charles X., but who had been some time dead), assisted at the ceremony; but the most conspicuous place was occupied by the mistress, who, in a lofty chair, overlooking the altar, gazed proudly on a ceremony which she looked upon as the seal of the consummation of all her projects.

If the real object of the League had been commensurate with that avowed by its chiefs, it might now have been dissolved, since the Roman Catholic religion could require no better security than was afforded them by its profession by the King. And such was so generally felt to be the case throughout the kingdom, that Mayenne was forced to make a truce with him; nor though his governor, Belin, still held Paris, could he prevent the citizens from flocking in crowds to St. Denis, to see the prince to whose reign they now unanimously looked forward as presenting the only hope of tranquillity to the kingdom. In the provinces the enthusiasm for Henry spread without restraint. Orleans opened its gates to his generals; Lyons rose in insurrection in his cause; and to give further courage to his daily increasing adherents, he resolved on celebrating his coronation. Rheims, however, where ancient custom required the King of France to be crowned, was still in the hands of the League; and the vial of holy oil, originally sent from heaven for the anointing of King Clovis, still remained in the cathedral of that city. At Chartres, however, where the royal council held its sittings, was an image of the Virgin, of an origin equally miraculous; and another vial of oil, of undeniable sanctity, having been brought down by angels for the cure of St. Martin of Tours, was in the custody of the abbot of Marmoutiers, who was not unwilling to lend it for the consecration of the converted monarch. The ceremony took place at the end of February, 1594; and again one of the most conspicuous of the witnesses was Gabrielle, for whom, by express command of the King, a chair was placed among those set apart for the princesses of the blood royal.

It remained to procure the removal of the sentence of excommunication which had been pronounced against Henry by the Pope. The Holy See had had many occupants since that sentence was first pronounced; and the vacillation of their conduct, while at one time they seemed wholly subservient to the League and to Philip, at another time rather to fear provoking Henry, and on other occasions to temporise with both, did little credit to their pretensions to infallibility; and in effect greatly weakened their hold on the judgment of the whole people of France, and paved the way for the independent position ultimately assumed by the Gallican Church. The existing Pope, Clement VIII., had been raised to that dignity by Spanish influence, and it was therefore probable that he would be found as hostile to Henry as he could dare to show himself. While the King was as yet unreconciled to the Romish Church, he had refused even to receive an embassy from him; but now, when Henry had been formally received into her communion by an archbishop in the presence of a cardinal, the case seemed altered; and a fresh and more formal embassy, at the head of which was the Duc de Nevers, was sent to Rome in the autumn of 1593 to lay before the Pope authentic testimonies of the King's conversion, and to solicit his absolution. Nevers had been selected, as likely, by reason of his Italian descent (he was nephew and heir of Vincenzo Gonzaga, Duke of Mantua), to be peculiarly acceptable to the Pope, who was himself a native of Italy; nevertheless Clement altogether declined to receive him as Henry's Ambassador, refusing the King any higher title than that of Prince of Béarn, and declaring that, if an angel from heaven were to affirm his conversion to the true faith, he would still refuse to believe it. Many of his council were of a different opinion; his confessor argued with him that if the devil himself were to ask for an audience with a view to his conversion and absolution, His Holiness ought not to reject him; but Clement was as yet immovable, though he no longer ventured to give Henry's enemies substantial aid; and when the Cardinal de Joyeuse came as an envoy from the League to solicit assistance in men and money, he refused both.

Henry had probably gained his principal object in showing to his Roman Catholic subjects that it was no obstinacy of his own that prevented him from being reconciled to the Head of the Church; and was speedily consoled for his disappointment by an event which seemed to be all that was now required to consolidate his real power. M. de Belin, who had formerly held out Paris against

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him with such gallantry and success, at last incurred the suspicions of the Spaniards and the municipality of the city, who believed, with some truth, that he was weary of the war, and looked upon the universal recognition of Henry's claims as indispensable for the salvation of the country. He was removed from his government, which was given to M. de Brissac; but the League gained but little by the change. From the moment of his appointment, the new governor began to negotiate with Henry for the surrender of the city. Intimations of his design reached the Duque de Feria, the Spanish ambassador; but Brissac repelled the charges made against him with so much skill, as to strengthen the confidence reposed in him; and his energy was equal to his address. On the night of 22nd March, 1594, the royal troops were secretly brought up and admitted within the walls of the city; and they had occupied the gates and most of the principal forts before any intelligence of their movements reached Feria, whom Brissac had surrounded with sentinels in such a way as to render the adoption of any active measures of resistance on his part impossible. It was hardly daybreak when Henry himself entered the city, making a magnanimous parade of the fearlessness with which he trusted himself among a population who had been waging ceaseless war against him for five years. Mayenne's soldiers were still in many a barrack; the Bastille was in the hands of the Spanish troops; it was not long since a desperate attempt to assassinate him had been made by Barrière, who was proved to be an emissary of the Guise family; but, in spite of all the warnings and solicitations of his followers, Henry would only enter what was now his capital as a King, and not as an enemy. Bareheaded, but for a bonnet and his famous white plume; with unarmed hand, his sword as well as his helmet being borne behind him by a page, he rode through the streets, greeted on all sides by the acclamations of the citizens, who, as he said himself, "had been long without seeing a true king," and whose joy at the unaccustomed spectacle was as sincere as it was enthusiastic.

(To be continued.)

#### MISS GWYNNE OF WOODFORD.\*

A sad book, and a dull book, written in an uncharitable spirit, and inculcating a bad moral. "Miss Gwynne of Woodford" is not, however, devoid of novelty, for the author has selected as a hero a person who is, in every relation of life, contemptible, when his vices do not render him odious and detestable. This hero is named Stephen Forrester, and in the very first scene in which he is introduced the lady who is in love with him is obliged to find fault with him as being too fond of ale, and too much addicted to tobacco; and strange it is to say, that the only act of abnegation performed by him during the whole work is, upon her remonstrance, throwing away his pipe, although it was "*a great beauty, and splendid in point of colour!*" This act of self-denial is, however, soon repented of, for the hero takes again to smoking and drinking; then, whilst professing love to the heroine, he is found flirting with a handsome Irish cousin. Then becoming false to the heroine, upon the downfall of her father, and her being reduced to poverty, he abandons her to court a rich young lady, marries her, and finally, upon the return of his Irish cousin to his house—to the same house in which his wife, child, and sister are living—he is described as deliberately altering the plan on which his father's mansion was built, in order that he might with the greater facility seduce his own cousin! This base wretch, a slave to his brutal appetites, is the hero of "Miss Gwynne of Woodford!" and for love of him she pines through two tedious volumes, and, finding that he has abandoned his cousin's child and his own, she, a fair, modest, pious, tender maiden, is described not merely as taking care of the *enfant trouvé*, but rearing him with the same love and tenderness as if the base-born boy was her own child; and then, when Mr. Stephen Forrester has lost his first wife, and that "Miss Gwynne of Woodford" is restored to her former rank and riches, the drunkard and sensualist seeks again for her hand, and the offspring of his infamy is the instrument whereby his suit is listened to, and "Miss Gwynne of Woodford" becomes the second Mrs. Forrester! These are wretched materials out of which to frame a novel, and the author is fairly entitled to the claim of originality when such a plot was composed and a book founded upon it, in the expectation there could be found a single right-thinking person to approve of or permit it to be read aloud for his wife, sisters, or daughters.

The hero of the book is not the only disgusting character in it. It may be admitted that there are in real life many Stephen Forresters—that is, a class of men who have no command over their passions—who, having the means of intoxication within their reach, cannot refrain from drunkenness; who are so immersed in sensuality, that neither their reasoning faculties nor their affections can be appealed to; that carnality engrosses their whole being, and that crimes, such as Stephen Forrester is described as perpetrating, are readily committed by them. All this is in accordance with actual life; but the reformation of such men was never yet effected by the means that are employed in this book. Stephen Forrester is not stricken by any overwhelming calamity, nor awakened, as some have fancied themselves, by any supernatural visitation. He is a prosperous and unmolested gentleman from the commencement to the close of the work. He, who is portrayed as not having strength of character to adhere to virtue, is afterwards presented to the reader as freeing himself from the shackles of vice and the confirmed habits of sin, without the slightest inconvenience.

However consistent with real life may be considered the character of the ale-drinking, brandy-bibbing, and tobacco-smoking adulterer Stephen, it must be added that seldom has a novelist ventured upon the invention of a character so unlike to reality as Kate Brian, "the Irish cousin." According to the picture given of her by the author, she is a girl of such transcendent beauty, that every one who sees her falls in love with her. She is a flirt and a jilt—she refuses the hand of a worthy clergyman and also of a brave sailor; she seeks to entrap the hero into a serious courtship, and failing in that attempt, she returns to Ireland, where the sailor-doctor proposes for her, and when she has been accepted by him, and the marriage-day is fixed, she abandons him, her family, the respectable position in society in which she might have moved as the doctor's wife, to become the degraded and clandestine mistress of a sot, in the same house with the brute's wife, sister, and child! And she who acts so plainly contrary to what was her own interest—this lovely flirt, coquette, and jilt—ends her career by becoming the wife of an old miser. If Kate Brian had been described as a fool, she might have become the dupe of an able and a clever man; but having been introduced as an artful, clever, cold-hearted woman, who is seeking to barter her charms for a respectable position as a wife, her career is inconsistent with her character, and only serves to disgust the reader by its absurdities and its grossness.

In short this is a bad book, inculcating a bad moral; and it is rendered still more offensive (considering the topics it invites the mind of young persons to rest upon), by an unbecoming introduction of religious questions, those questions being more-

\* Miss Gwynne of Woodford. By Garth Rivers. In two volumes. London: Smith, Elder, & Co., 65, Cornhill. 1861.

over discussed in a most uncharitable spirit. The author is one of the "over-righteous," and little disposed to exhibit toleration for differences of opinion. It certainly is no part of our duty to enter into the propriety or impropriety of "religious revivals," for the point is one as little suited to the functions of a literary reviewer as to the pages of a fictitious tale. These "revivals" may be right or wrong, useful or harmless, innocent or the opposite; but at all events "a novel" is not the place to introduce them, nor ridicule the weapon with which they should be assailed. What, for instance, can be more unbecoming than for a romancist thus to describe the manners of the simple-minded people of Wales?—

"I know very well that amongst the rural population, vast gatherings, dreadful groans, and much sermonizing take the place of the moral duties of life; for which, in fact, they have no regard, and which are flagrantly neglected" (Vol. i. p. 189).

A single specimen will be sufficient to show the ignorance with which the author charges the Welsh. The following sentences are supposed to be spoken by two Welsh peasant girls, who are telling the heroine why the other Welsh girls are staying away from a school over which the lady presided, assisted by her brother, a clergyman:—

"Please, 'm, they say the gentleman is Pusey," she replied, blushing.

"Yes, 'm," said another garrulously, "and that he teach you and all Pusey, and that he bow to the pictures on the window in church, and worship dead old men, and go with the Papists who eat their own children" (Vol. i. p. 183).

This is the author's picture of "morality" and "knowledge" in Wales; and this caricaturing is indulged in under the pretext of inculcating a respect for religion. Such writing is worthy of the book in which it appears—a wretched, drivelling compound of imbecility and absurdity; with a drunkard for a hero, and an old maid for a heroine, whose pet is the abandoned offspring of the worthless fellow who had forsaken her in her poverty.

"Miss Gwynne of Woodford" ought not to appear in the circulating libraries; although we have no doubt it would be received with welcome by some of those old warm hospitable tradesfolk, long since celebrated as the fitting caretakers of dull compositions:

"Et redimunt soli carmina docta coei."

#### MANUFACTURES IN AMERICA.\*

It is rather a curious coincidence that at the very time when the people of the United States, under the influence of political delusions, are breaking to pieces the ingenious mechanism of their combined industry, the attention of the world should be called by Dr. Bishop to the origin of its various parts. To those at least who are aware that the common appetites and impulses of man by the industry which they excite are the great causes of all progress, the history of the origin of the visible arts by which wants are gratified and progress is assured, is the most interesting of all histories. Even those who find the causes of such progress in political designs cannot look with indifference on the improvements in those arts by which the objects of statesmen are attained.

In the case of the United States, now in point of population superior to our own home empire, and consequently to be classed as the fourth, or, if we include China, as the fifth amongst civilized nations, the origin of various arts, obscure or utterly lost in darkness in almost all other cases, is accurately known, and in them we can trace the growth of a great nation back to its very birth. In almost all other cases fabulous ages have been required to bring into existence that greatness which in America has been achieved within three centuries, and the bulk of which has actually grown up within the memory of living men. Lord Lyndhurst may recollect the time when the United States had not four millions of people. And in other known cases, to increase from such a number to thirty millions required ten, twelve, or twenty centuries. Our knowledge of the causes of this difference does not make it less extraordinary.

We can trace minutely, by the help of Dr. Bishop, the progress of the material arts by which this rapid growth has been sustained, but this rather increases than diminishes our interest in the phenomena. We see them all, from first to last. We have not to hunt for the founder of the nation, for the great lawgiver who gave it form and order, for the principles of the design of which it is the realization, for there are none. Adventurers in search of wealth, exiles escaping persecution, founding for themselves a new home in a vast wilderness, and tempting others to join them, welcoming the oppressed, and not unwilling to receive the degraded and the criminal—the refuse of old civilization overflowing without a leader into a new world, and, by the mere force of their necessities, becoming in an astonishingly short period a great nation, is the epitome of their history. The origin and progress amongst them of the arts which they must have carried to considerable perfection in order to live, whether imported or native to the soil, is explained by Dr. Bishop, and we shall borrow from his book a few facts and a few dates rather to refresh the memory of the public than give it any novel information.

Cotton, now called "King" from its supposed power over political affairs, was the spontaneous product of many parts of America, and was cultivated in Virginia at a very early period. It was used for inferior clothing, and "Virginia cloth, made of cotton and woven with great taste by the women in country parts, was much prized for the use of slaves." Bounties on linen exported from England checked the colonial industry, though these were counteracted by restrictions on raw cotton imported from the West Indies and Brazils. Far from supplying all the rest of the world with cotton, America imported it till 1790. It had made, indeed, an attempt as early as 1770 to send some to Liverpool; but, as late as 1784, the quantity exported was so small that an American ship which had eight bales on board was seized because it was supposed to be impossible by our custom-house that so much could be exported from America. From Charlestown the first bag of cotton was exported in 1785. About that time it began to be perceived that the United States "might become a great cotton producing country." The Burdens, or Bordens, of South Carolina, for the name is spelt both ways, imported the "black seed" from the Bahamas, the species of cotton which is now the great article of export, and invented an improved roller gin for cleaning it. In 1793, the invention of the saw gin by Eli Whitney, who, like other ingenious men, was rather robbed than rewarded for his invention, gave great impulse to the growth of cotton in the States, and enabled them not only to dispense with a supply from the West Indies and the Brazils, but to undersell these countries in all other markets. From that time successive improvements in the operations for cleaning cotton, combined with the "splendid inventions in England for converting it into cloth," have promoted incessantly the cultivation of cotton in America. In 1859, the quantity exported from the States, according to their own statistics, was 1,386,468,562 lbs., valued at 152,000,000 dollars. The growth of our own manufacturing industry since 1790 is fully matched by the growth of cotton in the States. The two went together, and are equally parts of the com-

\* A History of American Manufactures, from 1608 to 1860, exhibiting the growth of the principal Mechanical Arts and Manufactures from the earliest colonial period, &c. By J. Leander Bishop, M.D. In two vols. Philadelphia: Edward Young & Co.; London: Sampson Low, Son, & Co.

[Aug. 17, 1861.]

bined industry, which unites nations, as well as individuals, in one productive family.

Dr. Bishop's first volume, the only one yet published, and, coming down only to 1790, does not include any account of the present condition of the cotton manufactures in the States; they are, however, of the annual value of 37,000,000 dollars, and consume cotton equal to one-tenth of that exported. Except our own cotton manufacture, which has, as to quantity, marched at an equal rate, we know no other equal growth in the history of society.

If we could bring into one focus all the widely-scattered branches of the various arts employed about metals, and connect each of them with its commencement, we should find, in these arts also, extended and improved as they have been throughout the civilized world since America was peopled from Europe, a growth equal to that of the cotton manufacture. On this subject Dr. Bishop's work is very minute and instructive; but it is too vast and too diversified to admit of being condensed into our space. The Americans are skilful workers in metals. They succeed equally in making hatchets and steam engines; they have great natural advantages both in the nature of their metallic ores and in fuel; and no other disadvantage, if it be one, than a comparatively high price for labour. They need fear no competition. It is, therefore, to be deeply regretted, that their legislature should have imitated the ignorant legislatures of Europe of the last century, and, in spite of Franklin, should have protected native industry at the vast cost of civic estrangement, ending in civil war. The Americans were continually outraged for years, and at length driven to separation by restrictions on their industry imposed by the mother country, and yet they have now blindly and ignorantly inflicted on themselves the evils against which they justly rebelled.

The first vessel larger than a row-boat ever built in the United States, was the work of a Dutchman, Captain Adrien Block, at Manhattan river (New York), in 1614. She was called the *Onrest*, and was of 16 tons burden. Not till 1624 did ship building begin at Plymouth, and now the tonnage of the United States is as large as that of Great Britain, and their sailing if not their steam vessels are equal to the finest built in this country. United, they were the second great maritime power of the world. What they may dwindle to from their present quarrels we cannot know; but it may excite the astonishment of posterity with the present evidence before it of the prosperity they have already attained.

When the first windmill was built is not recorded, but the first watermill was erected at Dorchester, probably as early as 1628; now the number of mills for grinding, sawing, paper-making, &c., &c., are beyond enumeration. The first papermill in the colonies was erected at Roxburgh, Pennsylvania, before 1693, by David Rittenhouse, from Arnhem on the Rhine; now above two thousand mills are employed "producing paper on a scale and quantity equal to that of any other country."

The first printing-press was put up at Cambridge, where the establishment of a college was provided for, "within eighteen years after the Pilgrim Fathers had trod the rock of Plymouth." There education and printing went hand in hand. In some of the plantations even in Massachusetts there was much jealousy of the press, and licensers watched its operations, and determined what should be printed. Now they are unknown, and a printing-press, one of the necessities of modern civilization, is put up in every new settlement more certainly than a grist mill.

It would be impossible, even were it desirable, for us to advert to a tithe of the many subjects of which this compact volume of 600 pages treats in detail. Enough has been said to show the reader the kind of minute information on all the arts practised in the States, which Dr. Bishop has carefully collected. It is a part of his plan to notice all improvements successively made by Americans, and for them he claims the invention of driving boats by steam. But this is one of those improvements or applications of new motive powers to old and widely-used instruments so evidently feasible and desirable that they are certain to be made in many places about the same time. Questions of priority of invention are of great importance to the individuals whose pecuniary interests or reputation is involved in them; but every real improvement grows so certainly from the condition of society, that the date of its appearance is of much more importance to history than the name of the uncertain and partial inventor. It is good at the same time that this should be known, in order that no benefactor of his species should go without his earthly reward; but it is never of sufficient importance to justify making it a subject of national controversy. Dr. Bishop's book is full of minute and valuable information, the more important inasmuch as the community it concerns is entirely new, and offers more subjects of social interest from its extraordinary history than any other. It displays, in one spot, the extremes of barbarism and civilization; the scalping savage and the refined inhabitant of drawing-rooms; the rudest barter, corn and tobacco employed as money, declared to be a legal tender, and a refined system of credit, with a clearing-house equal to our own. There is no reference in the volume to locomotion, or we should find a greater difference between the foot tracks and the rude carts of the first settlers, and the railways and telegraphs of their descendants, than is to be found in the same period, in modes of locomotion and communication, in our own or any other civilized country. Dr. Bishop's book will be welcome to the world. It is precisely that kind of book all intelligent strangers want and wish for—information on America given by an American.

#### GREAT CATCHES AND GREAT MATCHES.\*

CONTRADICTORY as it may seem, it is the most difficult thing possible to mete out justice to a book which is rather below mediocrity. The admiration inspired by a work of genius suggests the words necessary for the expression of that admiration, and the *feu sacré*, which glows in the author, may, perchance, kindle a like spark in the reviewer. On the other hand a preposterously bad book is, in its way, a perfect godsend. The critic, not we fear, unwillingly, recognizes that his duty forbids a leniency injurious to the true interests of literature, and betakes himself to his tomahawk with a war-whoop and a bound. If gods, men, and shop-windows are intolerant of indifferent poets, they should surely be equally so of indifferent novelists. At any rate, if they are not, we, the reviewers, are. It is almost impossible to write a lively article on them (now-a-days everything must be lively) without an unjust exaggeration of their faults. Of course all books have faults, especially the indifferent ones. The critic has only to seize upon these as a cat does upon a mouse, and pat, and shake, and toss them through the required column. He will have filled up his space and earned his money. What he will not have done will be to give a fair idea of the merits—most books have some merits—of the work under consideration.

We may as well say at once that "Great Catches and Great Matches" seems to us to be below mediocrity. The writer, here and there, shows some power of interesting, which is a great thing in his favour; but his incidents are generally impossible, and his reflections common-place. We don't want to blame him for a deficiency in "artistic treatment," or for "a want of consistency in the develop-

\* Great Catches and Great Matches. Saunders & Otley. 1861.

ment of his characters;" because a book may be very amusing without any such grand qualities. An author, too, might not mind being called unphilosophical, if the public voted him amusing, and bought his book accordingly.

The story turns upon the attempts of a vulgar Irish adventuress, who has married a peer's son, and been left a widow, to get her daughters eligible of her hands. One of these daughters takes after, we presume, her defunct and high-born father. That is, she is amiable, modest, and high-minded. She consequently turns out well, and lives happily ever afterwards, not, however, till she has undergone the most desperate hardships, thereby contributing towards the liquidation of the sins of her relations. The other sisters, who are neither high-minded nor amiable, begin to get their deserts at their very first starting in life; one marries a cornet in the Plungers, who is discovered in due season to be the son and heir of a bankrupt pawnbroker; while the other, determined not to be outdone, elopes with an officer of the same regiment, who, unknown to his bride, fills the useful but unfashionable office of *veterinary surgeon*. If this be not dealing even-handed justice we don't know what is. The careers of these two sisters are, however, only episodes when compared with that part of the book which treats of the adventures of the good sister. As we have hinted, her married life also is at first far from prosperous. There are perils by land and perils by sea, kidnappings, shipwrecks, hallucinations, and resuscitations. These are brought about principally by the agency of the Society of Jesus, represented by a haggard old gentleman in a wig, and a handsome young one, with dark expressive eyes. The mission of the latter is to pretend to marry the good sister, and thereby secure her fortune—she is an heiress—for the only true Church; that of the former to keep the young gentleman up to the mark, and see that he does not kick over the traces. Somehow or other he does kick over the traces by falling in love in reality, instead of only making believe; hence the necessity of strict surveillance and general oppressiveness on the part of the old gentleman. Of course the experienced novel reader can guess that the villain eventually goes to Old Nick, and that the hero repents him of his errors, returns, after the shipwrecks, &c., to the wife of his bosom, and repays, by the most exemplary conjugal behaviour, the privations of which he had been the involuntary cause. Which is the hero and which is the villain we won't say for fear of spoiling the story.

As to the impossibility of the incidents, we may mention that those laws of England which relate to protection of the person appear to have been in abeyance during the whole period embraced by the action. The way in which the unfortunate heiress is whipped up here, there, and everywhere is a caution to spinsters. Were Mr. Carden, the Irish gentleman who is for ever carrying off his lady-love, to read the book, he would at once migrate to the parts in question, with the view of achieving his object with impunity. Then there is a female Jesuit, who is always to be found where she has no business to be, and who might have graduated in the school of Fagin, so complete a mistress is she of the art of effraction without violence. Of the old gentleman, his versatility, his ubiquity, and his iniquity, we forbear to speak. Were he possible, there could be no Protestant heiresses and very few Protestant heirs in the country. The reflections of which we have complained as commonplace we need not quote. The finest reflections are very usually skipped by the reader of a novel itself; so what business have we, with our limited space, to quote commonplace ones, simply to prove ourselves in the right? Should our author feel aggrieved at our not doing so, we will return good for evil, by inviting those who are in doubt to go to his book and judge for themselves.

#### THE COUNTY FAMILIES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.\*

THIS is a very valuable work. It is a book of "the gentry" of the United Kingdom, particularising the head of each family, and giving a clear and distinct account of each, his descent, his connections, his social position, and if he is or has been in the public service, his official rank. The author has carried inquiries so far as to enable the reader to know the residence of each person mentioned by him—whether in city, town, or country—and if the individual have more than one place of residence it is set down in this volume.

Mr. Walford has, we think, combined with great propriety in the pages of the same volume, the families of the British gentry that bear titles, as well as those who have never borne a title, but who, if dwellers in other lands, would be regarded as members of "the nobility."

"The untitled landed gentry," it is remarked by Mr. Erskine May, in his admirable "History of the English Constitution," "upheld by the conservative law of primogeniture, are an ancient aristocracy in themselves, and the main source from which the peerage has been recruited. In no other country is there such a class, at once aristocratic and popular, and a bond of connection between the nobles and the commonalty."—(Vol. i., p. 269.)

The great distinction between "nobility" in the British islands and nobility on the Continent is, that here the tendency of "the titled" is to divest themselves of titles, and abroad the tendency is the very opposite—to multiply titles. Every son of an English baron, for instance, except the eldest, can never, by right of birth, be more than an "honourable"—a mere title of courtesy—his grandson no more than an "esquire." Abroad, every son of a baron bears the same title as his father, and every grandson is, by courtesy and custom, a baron, because his grandfather had been so ennobled. The consequence of this last and pernicious system is to create a caste—a caste claiming exclusive privileges for itself—without wealth to sustain its pretensions, and impeded by its titles from mingling with the mass of fellow-citizens, and becoming, like the rest of mankind, devoted to arts, sciences, law, commercial and agricultural pursuits, and so rendering themselves useful to the community as wealth-producers.

In England the descendants of peers are untitled, and they are recognised as an untitled nobility—as the great men of the country, because they are independent in property, independent in principle, honourable in all their dealings with their fellow men, in the true sense of the word—"gentlemen"—justly proud of the antiquity of their families, and proving themselves worthy of their descent by their bearing in war, and their conduct in peace. They may be, in one sense, compared to the "ricos hombres" of Spain, persons so scrupulous of their honour and personal dignity, that one of the ancient chroniclers recites, as a very extraordinary circumstance, that a Castilian *rico hombre*, in the year 1434, actually consented to joust in a tournament with one who could not even prove that his father was a Hidalgo!

But how determine who are the persons, who though not bearing titles are privileged to be placed in the same work with those whose titles demonstrate their rank and nobility? How do so, particularly at a time when "the age is grown so picked, that the toe of the peasant comes so near the heel of the courtier, he galls his kib?" Few persons will be disposed to coincide in the opinion expressed by Shakespeare's *Gravedigger*, and maintain "There is no ancient gentlemen but gardeners, ditchers, and grave-makers."

\* The County Families of the United Kingdom; or, Royal Manual of the Titled and Untitled Aristocracy of Great Britain and Ireland. Containing a brief notice of the descent, marriage, education, and appointments of each person, his heir apparent or presumptive, as also a record of the offices which he has hitherto held, together with his town address and country residences. By Edward Walford, M.A., late Scholar of Balliol College, Oxford, and Fellow of the Genealogical and Historical Society of Great Britain. London: Robert Hardwicke, 192, Piccadilly. 1861.

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Mr. Walford, in the Preface to his book, maintains the propriety of the course he has adopted in the following words:—

"I have not chosen the title of this work without deliberation. I have called my book a *MANUAL OF THE TITLED AND UNTITLED ARISTOCRACY*, and have accordingly arranged both these orders under a single alphabet, because I remember the words of James I., that 'the King, though he can make a noble, cannot make a gentleman; and because the bearing of arms, not of titles, has ever been considered as the distinctive mark of true noblesse.'"

But when did the bearing of arms commence? The question is one difficult to determine. Muratori, if we mistake not, fixes the general adoption of surnames in Europe, and the bearing of family cognizances, at the eleventh century. There can be no doubt of their use at the period of the Crusades, but they are traceable so far back as the Siege of Troy, if we are to place any reliance upon the authority of Pausanias. He mentions in his fifth book that the device on the shield of Idomeneus, a descendant of Pasiphae, daughter of the Sun, was "a cock," because a cock, by its crowing, salutes the rising sun; and in the tenth book, he says that the device on the shield of Menelaus was "a dragon." There is a passage in Juvenal, as to the decoration both of crests and shields by the Romans, of which we quote but two lines:—

"Nudam effigiem clypeo fulgentis et hasta  
Pendentisque Dei."

The devices of various heroes of antiquity, Greeks and Romans, are specified very minutely by the learned Garzoni in his "Discorso de gli Araldi."

There are other tests besides the right to bear arms by which the antiquity of the English gentry can be proved. These are the County Histories, and, above all, ancient charters, whether of monasteries, boroughs, or cities. We take from Mr. Walford's book one example—the ancient family of the Dods—the oldest branch of which is now represented by a lady:—

"Charlotte Dod (of Edge Hall), eldest daughter of the late Thomas Crewe Dod, Esq., by Anne, fourth daughter of Ralph Sneyd, Esq., of Keele, co. Stafford; married, 1834, the Rev. Joseph Yates, son of the late Lieutenant-General C. N. Cookson, of Kenton House, Devon, who assumed the name of Dod, on his marriage, by royal license. This most ancient British family formerly possessed very large landed property, of which it was in part deprived by William the Conqueror, who bestowed it upon his followers, Grosvenor and Cholmondeley. (Edge Hall, near Malpas, Cheshire.)"

Here, then, is a family that never bore a title of any description; and yet can prove its antiquity as a portion of the landed gentry of England more clearly and distinctly than some of our dukes, for the name of its ancestor is traceable back to the reign of Edward the Confessor, and is set forth in one of the charters printed in Gale and Fulman's "Rerum Anglicarum Scriptores," vol. ii.

It is a praiseworthy and a useful task to compile such a work as this; but it is one requiring unceasing vigilance and untiring toil. Many authorities have to be consulted; the annals of the past diligently investigated, and information procured from living sources of information carefully examined. Mr. Walford has performed his task in a manner honourable to himself, and with great advantage to the public. The readers of his book have a right to be satisfied with it, but he himself is not content with what he has done, and seeks for suggestions from all sides. We respond to such a call by intimating new sources of investigation. In England we believe he would find much that would be useful to him in Kemble's "Codex Diplomaticus Aevi Saxonici," in Ireland, in the two editions of "The Annals of the Four Masters," the one translated by Dr. O'Donovan, and the other by Dr. Philip MacDermott; and, as regards Scotland, some of its ancient families will, we believe, be found, connected with legends and charters, set forth in the "Acta Sanctorum" of the Bollandists. We believe that in these authorities, and Dugdale's "Monasticon," will be discovered the names of the ancestors of many who are now recognised amongst the titled and untitled gentry of Great Britain, Ireland, and Scotland. With these suggestions we recommend Mr. Walford's book to universal circulation. It is a book necessary to have in every library. It is a book of facts, and these facts are of interest to thousands of individuals. The first edition of such a work could not but be imperfect. We miss from it many names that should be inserted; and sure we are that no head of "a county family," whose name is worthy of being published, would withhold information respecting either himself or his progenitors. The accuracy of such a work is of more than common importance; for in one respect it is an incentive to virtue, as each person whose name, rank, or dignity is set forth is bound to bear in mind, that "no man is worthy of being called a gentleman whose conduct is a disgrace to his family, and whose only claim to distinction is that he bears an illustrious name."

"Quis enim generosum dixerit hunc, qui  
Indignus genere, et praeclaro nomine tantum  
Insignis?"

#### WRIGHT'S POLITICAL POEMS AND SONGS.\*

THIS, the second volume of an important contribution to English history, sustains the reputation of the editor, and the judgment of the Master of the Rolls. We should have liked better to have seen the collection rendered more complete by the addition of various pieces, which, although printed in recent times, are not very readily accessible to the reader. In fact, collections of this kind lose a great part of their value unless they include all materials of interest, irrespectively of the consideration whether such fragments have or have not been previously scattered in other printed works. The present volume commences with complimentary verses on Henry IV., by John Gower, who was the chief political poet of the reign of Richard II. This writer composed in Latin verse, and he was evidently guided by his partiality to the nobles who led the opposition to the court, a circumstance which accounts for his turning against the unfortunate Richard in favour of the new sovereign. He was a zealous Catholic, and no doubt sanctioned the cruel act, passed early in Henry's reign, by which heretics were ordered to be punished by burning at the stake, the first victim of which was one William Sautrey, a parish priest, convicted of heretical opinions.

These proceedings, as the editor observes, naturally carried consternation among the Wycliffites; but, as is usually the case, persecution on the one hand only increased and embittered the zeal of the persecuted, while some acts of severity on the part of the Crown against a few Romish ecclesiastics who had engaged in treasonable conspiracies, encouraged them still to hope for a change in their favour. Under these circumstances the Wycliffites slackened nothing in their activity, but they united more warmly with those who were struggling for social and political liberty; and the popular dislike to the Romish priesthood was greatly increased. About the year 1400, at the time the Act above alluded to was passed, there appeared a poem in alliterative verse, evidently intended to be circulated among the populace, in which a character called Jack Upland is introduced, propounding the various heads of the complaints of the Wycliffites against the Romish Church in a series of questions addressed to the friars, who were the

\* Political Poems and Songs relating to English History, composed during the period from the Accession of Edward III. to that of Richard III. Edited by Thomas Wright, Esq., M.A., F.S.A. Vol. II. Svo. Longman & Co.

most active agents against the professors of the new opinions. This poem appears to have given great alarm or offence to the friars, one of whom, who wrote under the assumed name of Daw Topias, put forth a reply to these questions, compiled in exactly the same style, but sprinkled here and there with rather violent abuse of Wycliffe and the Lollards.

A Wyclifite took up the cudgel immediately, and retorted in a similar style. This last writer alludes to an event as then recent which seems to fix the date of all these pieces to the year 1401. These poems appear to us to be the most interesting portions of Mr. Wright's work, and are well worth studying by those who are interested in the religious history of that eventful period. The volume concludes with a useful glossary and index of mediæval Latin words, amongst which, however, in the midst of real learning, we find the important and novel information that *phy* is "an exclamation of disgust"! This puts us in mind of the lecturer who thought it necessary, "for the sake of the ladies," to translate the words *anno domini*; and that the readers of so learned a volume should be presumed by the editor to be as ignorant, nearly induces us to exclaim, in the words of Maebeth, "Fy, Mr. Wright, fy!" It is, however, so far as we can see, the only sentence in the whole work to which such an exclamation is applicable.

#### PSEUDO-CHRONICLES AND MEMOIRS.\*

"THE Chronicle of Ethelred," a small volume which lies before us for review, belongs to a class of books of which we have had quite enough of late years, and is the production, we believe, of a lady of talent, to whom we owe several others of the same description. They consist of imaginary autobiographies and personal histories written in the antiquated and quaint language which, it is presumed that a writer of the time would have used. This is, no doubt, an ingenious exercise for a young writer's talents, and might be accepted once as a curious example of successful imitation, but there is no necessity of repeating it. It is not truth, and therefore we gain nothing by receiving it under the outward garb of truth; but, on the contrary, whatever is good in it would, we think, come much better before the world in its true character as a work of fiction. Even the merit of ingenuity in this case is not very great. When the author sought her subjects in the seventeenth century, she had to deal with the English language in an only slightly antiquated form, which everybody can read with ease, but the case is altered when she goes back to an age when the language is no longer capable of being understood by ordinary English readers. It is clear that, if any Lady Ethelred had written a chronicle in Anglo-Saxon, there is only two ways of bringing it before the public; either by printing the original text, which would only be understood by a few scholars, or by publishing a translation in plain modern English. But instead of this, we have a supposed chronicle, pretending neither to be an original text nor a translation, but written in a rather affected style of English, intermixed with a large number of Anglo-Saxon words, taken from a dictionary, and the only object of which seems to be to obtain the opportunity of giving their meanings in notes at the foot of the page, or of puzzling the reader. We cannot imagine what class of readers can be benefited or entertained by this process. We talk of explaining at the foot of the page, but even this is not always done, and such examples as the following, where the explanation is omitted, must puzzle many a person who takes up this book to read.

"He said that was right, and arose pushing aside the yldestan-setl" (p. 6).

"Our Saxon laws most wisely provide that presents shall universally come from the other, that is, the brydeuma's side" (p. 24).

"And in the first place stumbles over sundry fotha of firewood that lie within the threshold" (p. 57).

"They had better have slept under fewer bedd-reaffles, and have left them sooner in the morning" (p. 79).

"Believe me, ye are favoured among women to have such a mother for your abudisse" (p. 178).

"Seven times visited Rome, and, in conclusion, getymbrade a monastery" (p. 181).

"One Sabbath morn, the man and his meowlia would go forth, leaving certain cakes, well besewon and well gesyfled, a baking on a pan over the fire" (p. 201).

Why should the reader who undertakes to peruse this book be obliged to have an Anglo-Saxon dictionary beside him in order to turn to it and find out that, in these pages taken at random in opening the book, the word *yldestan-setl* means the seat of honour, *brydcuma* (an error, we suppose, for *brydguma*), a bridegroom, *fotha*, probably another error, as even the dictionary does not help us to it, *bedd-reaffles*, bed-clothes, *abudisse*, an abbess, and that *getymbrade* means built; that *meowlia* was intended, we suppose, to mean a married woman (which is a mistake, for it means a virgin), and that *gesyfled* means sifted. What *besewon* may be we know not. But the whole thing is supremely ridiculous. Surely, in such examples as the following, which are thickly scattered through the pages, it would be better to put the plain English equivalent in the text, than to give such words as *cuman*, *stafen-craft*, *wigs*, *facen-leas*, *poyntels*, *isern-smiths*, and *treow-whirts*, in order to explain, in foot notes, that they mean respectively a guest, the art of letters, idols, deceitful, iron pens (an erroneous explanation, for they were not pens at all), a blacksmith, and a carpenter.

"May I never have a more dangerous cuman under my roof!" (p. 18).

"Nor is there need for a queen to read at sight, or have stafen-craft like a bishop" (p. 65).

"As any of our old benighted forefathers, who worshipped wigs" (p. 79).

"She seeketh the comfort of some friend, who is, perhaps, facen-leas; or, it may be, of her maid" (p. 80).

"Shortly there arrived from the king a present of waxed tablets and poyntels" (p. 180).

"Every isern-smith and treow-whirts that was craftlike was secure of full employment" (p. 204).

In getting together words in this way, it may be expected that many mistakes would be made. The Anglo-Saxon word chosen is not always the one which was in common use in the sense here given to it. In the last but one of the extracts just given, *poyntel* is not an Anglo-Saxon word at all, but Anglo-Norman or French. Neither are the descriptions of Anglo-Saxon manners and sentiments sufficiently correct to put them in the mouth of an Anglo-Saxon. We repeat that we cannot see the utility or value of a book like this. The authoress is a woman of talent, and if she wishes to give us her views of Anglo-Saxon manners and history in the form of fiction, she would be doing better service in writing a story of Anglo-Saxon times. Such books as the "Chronicle of Ethelred" are, at best, nothing better than bad literary forgeries, which are never sufficiently perfect to pass.

\* The Chronicles of Ethelred. Set forth by the Author of "Mary Powell." 8vo. Hall Virtue, & Co. 1861.

LIFE.—"The sorrow of life" (remarks a modern writer) "elevates and refines our perceptions. We look back with temperate pity upon the unsubstantial dreams of boyhood, and cherish, as more truly desirable than its 'vain, deluding joys,' our passionate farewells, our communion with the dead, our wider but sadder horizons."

## MISCELLANEOUS NOTICES.

*Pictorial Geography for the Instruction of Young Children.* By Mrs. Mackie. London: Griffith & Farran, St. Paul's Churchyard.—One of the first great difficulties in teaching geography can be overcome in a very brief space of time by an examination of this picture; and the picture itself is so well and so cleverly executed, as, on the instant, to attract the attention of every one, whether old or young. Here are painted representations of all geographical terms—a child can with a glance at the different parts of this picture at once understand what is "an island," "a peninsula," "a creek," "a strait," "a capital," "a sea," "the ocean," "an inland sea," "a lake," "a volcano," &c., &c. The eye is the teacher, and the mind of the youthful student feels a pleasure in acquiring knowledge thus imparted to it. A copy of Mrs. Mackie's "Pictorial Geography" ought to be placed in every school-room in the British dominions. Information was never conveyed in a more practical or pleasing form.

*The Semi-attached Couple.* By the author of the "Semi-detached House." London: Richard Bentley, New Burlington-street.—This is a republication of a very pleasing novel, which has been already favourably noticed in THE LONDON REVIEW. Its merits fairly entitle it to form one of a very valuable collection of books, "Bentley's Standard Novels."

*Palestine Lost.* Objections to the Doctrine of Israel's future Restoration to their own Land, National Pre-eminence, &c. By Edward Swaine. Third Edition. London: Jackson, Walford, & Hodder, 18, St. Paul's Churchyard.—The reprint of a work well deserving of perusal, and discussing a point of considerable importance.

*Memoirs of an Unknown Life.* Edinburgh: Alexander Strahan & Co.; London: Hamilton, Adams, & Co.—We have frequently had an opportunity of expressing our admiration of that useful, instructive, and interesting miscellany, *Good Words*. One of the attractions to *Good Words* has been the series of papers now collected together in a single volume. All who are not readers of *Good Words* will be gratified with the perusal of "Memoirs of an Unknown Life," in a complete form; and many who have read the "Memoirs" before will now, we are certain, again meet them with renewed pleasure.

**BOOKS RECEIVED.**—*How to Vanquish the Pretty Horsebreakers*—Words of Counsel to the Daughters and Mothers of England, with a few dogmas preached at Bachelors and Married Men. By Two or Three, who know all about it. London: William Dormer, 21, Warwick-square, Paternoster-row.—*How shall I get into an Hospital?* A Guide for Patients. By the Rev. Albert Alston, M.A., Curate of All Saints, St. John's Wood. London: Edward Stanford, 6, Charing Cross, S.W.; F. C. Harrison, 24, Queen's-terrace, Finchley-road.—*The Grievance and the Remedy.* An Essay in verse. By Expectans. London: Robert Hardwicke, 192, Piccadilly.—*The Authenticity of the Poems of Ossian.* A Lecture by Peter M'Naughten Tullipourie. Edinburgh: MacLachlan & Stewart, 64, Southbridge. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. Aberdeen: David & Lewis Smith. Inverness: William Smith.—Tracts for Priests and People, No. VII. Cambridge: Macmillan & Co., and 23, Henrietta-street, Covent Garden.—*Colliery Explosions*, and Means to prevent them. By Richard Hugh Hughes. London: F. Plummer, 21, Great New-street, E.C.—*The Assurance Magazine*, No. LXIV. London: Charles & Edwin Layton, 150, Fleet-street.—*The Technologist*, Vol. II., No. 1. London: Kent & Co., Paternoster-row.

## LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Lord Campbell has left all his manuscripts and literary papers to his daughter, which she is at liberty to publish for her sole benefit, in consideration of her constant and faithful assistance to him in his literary labours.

Mr. Alexander Gilchrist's "Life of William Blake" is in progress, and will soon be published by Messrs. Macmillan. The book will be divided into two parts; the first being a memoir, collected from original sources, the second a selection of Blake's poems, many of which are quite new, and will include a sample of his prose compositions. The volume will be illustrated by Mr. W. J. Linton.

Messrs. Trübner & Co. announce a "Japanese Grammar," by Mr. Rutherford Alcock, the English envoy to Japan.

In the September number of *Fraser's Magazine* will be commenced the first part of a new tale, called "Barren Honour," by the author of "Guy Livingstone," "Sword and Gown."

Messrs. Edmonstone & Douglas are about to publish a new work by Mr. James Syme, on "Clinical Observations."

Captain Mayne Reid's new tale, which will be published by Messrs. Hurst & Blackett, is entitled "A Hero in Spite of Himself."

Messrs. A. & C. Black have just issued the eleventh edition of their "Picturesque Guide to the English Lakes," which fact speaks for itself, and for the value of the book. They have also added Guides to Sussex, Kent, and Surrey, which have been compiled from the best topographical authorities. Mr. Stanford has also ready a manual for the traveller to the East Coast of England, from the Thames to the Tweed. And Mr. Murray adds to his Handbook Series, one for North Wales.

Messrs. Longman have in the press "A Narrative of the China Campaign in 1860, and of a Short Residence among the Rebel Forces at Nankin," by Lieut.-Colonel Wolseley.

Messrs. Williams & Norgate will, in future, publish the "Journal of Sacred Literature," which will be edited by the Rev. B. Harris Cowper.

Messrs. Ticknor & Field, of Boston, have just published Mr. Thomas Hughes's "Tom Brown at Oxford," with a portrait of the author; the book being dedicated to Mr. J. Russell Lowell.

A subscription list has been opened at Messrs. Drummond's, with a view of raising funds to present a testimonial to Mr. Milner Gibson, in consideration of the part he took in obtaining the abolition of all taxes on literature and the press. The committee hope to close the list on the 1st of October next. The subscription is limited to one pound.

Mr. Trübner, of Paternoster-row, has for sale a complete set of a very scarce edition of "Œuvres de Bossuet," complete in forty-seven volumes. This work is not often to be met with in such excellent condition.

Messrs. Hamilton, Adams, & Co., are about to publish, in a cheap form, a new edition of Madame de Gasparin's "The Near and Heavenly Horizons."

Mr. Robert Coles' collection of autographs and MSS. has lately been dispersed under the hammer of Messrs. Puttick & Simpson. Its formation was somewhat peculiar, and affords instructive lessons as well to stimulate the industry of "collectors," as of warning to so-called custodians of manuscript treasures. It is a matter of notoriety that the mass of curious papers presented in this, the first portion only, of Mr. Coles' collection, has been acquired during the last twenty-five years, mainly by diligent gleanings from the papers discarded as waste by various public and private offices. It only remains to quote a few of the more remarkable lots, with the prices they produced. Lot 195, Last Will, with the Codicils, of Napoleon I., translated copies; autograph letters of Count Montholon, and other papers in reference to the will, £4. One of the bequests, in the codicil of April 24th, 1821, gives ten thousand francs to the subaltern Cantillon, who meditated the assassination of Wellington, in which act Napoleon asserted Cantillon would have been justified, by its being for the interest of France to get rid of a general who, besides having violated the capitulation of Paris, had rendered himself responsible for the blood of the martyrs, Ney and Labeyrière; and of the crime of having stripped the Museums, contrary to the letter of the treaties. Lot 279, a most extraordinary assemblage of Autographs, Letters, and Papers, referring particularly to Caroline, queen-consort of George IV., relative to her trial, arranged in 9 vols., £51. These papers form a complete secret history of this famous *cause célèbre*, its antecedents and attendant circumstances, and supply an authentic record of facts not otherwise attainable. Lot. 295, Sir Francis Chantrey's Ledger-book of the busts, monuments, and statues, executed by him, £3. 5s. The monument in Lichfield Cathedral of the Sleeping Children, is charged £650. Lot 380, A Letter of Cowper, the poet, £3. 5s. Lot 414, A deed signed by De Foe and his daughter, £4. 10s. Lot 494, A Short Letter of Oliver Cromwell, while Captain, a military rank he held but a short time, £6. 10s. Lot 527, A humorous letter of Sir Philip Francis, the reputed Junius, £4. 4s. Lot 569, A letter of Gibbon, the historian, £5. 2s. 6d. Lot 570, A Document bearing the rare signatures of Nell Gwynn and Otway, the poet, £5. 15s. Lot 619, Bills of Costs of Messrs. Wallis and Troward, solicitors, appointed for the impeachment of Warren Hastings; these charges and disbursements are £55,802. 2s. 1d.; but the taxing, aided by allowances, reduced the amount to £39,887. 4s.: £5. 5s. Lots 727-8-9, Three Letters of Dr. Johnson, addressed to Lewis Paul, inventor of the Spinning Machine, £21. 16s. Lot 846, Letter of Flora Macdonald, who aided the escape of Charles Edward Stewart, better known as the Young Pretender, with some other papers, all relating to the subscription set on foot for the benefit of the heroine, £15. 5s. Lot 879, A letter of Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough, £3. 3s. Lot 1,080, A document with the signature of the patriot, Lord William Russell, £3. 6s. Lot 1,081, The magnanimous Lady Rachel Russell, wife of the preceding, her signature to a document, £2. 1s. Lot 1,120, Letters and Papers relative to Moneys expended by Foreign Ministers and others, for "Secret Service," 1792-1827, £4. 4s. Lord Grenville's account amounts to £810,852. These papers are clearly spoils from some public office. Lot 1,176, Original Letters and Correspondence of Sir Michael Stanhope, whilst Lieutenant-Governor of Hull, temp. Henry VIII., 3 vols., folio, £140. The sale was well attended throughout by amateurs and the representatives of the principal collectors and museums, English and foreign.

Messrs. Puttick & Simpson will sell by auction, on Tuesday, August 20th, and four following days, a large and highly valuable collection of books. Many of them are very rare, and in a beautiful state of preservation. Among them will be found a splendid copy of Gould's "Birds of Australia," and a few curious and rare autographs.

## LIST OF NEW BOOKS AND NEW EDITIONS.

FROM AUGUST 9TH TO AUGUST 15TH.

Barnett (John). Landscape Painting in Oil Colours. 4to. New edition. 12s. Virtue.	Luscombe (G.). Myrtles and Aloes. 8vo. 5s. Hamilton.
Bechstein's Handbook of Cage Birds. 18mo. cloth. 2s. Dean & Son.	Margaret Leslie. Feap. cloth. 2s. 6d. Hamilton.
Benisch's Jewish Bible, Vol. IV. 8vo. cloth. 15s. Longman.	McGilchrist (John). Roseallan's Daughter: A Tragedy. Crown 8vo. 2s. 6d. Houston.
_____ English only. 8vo. cloth. 6s. 6d. Longman.	Parks (W.). Tracts and Addresses, 1851-1861. Feap. 3s. 6d. Collingridge.
Black's Kent Guide. Feap. 8vo. cloth. 3s. 6d. Longman.	Practical Swiss Guide. 12mo. sewed. 2s. 6d. Simpkin.
Black's Kent Guide. Feap. 8vo. cloth. 3s. 6d. Longman.	Belgian, Holland, and Rhine Guide. 12mo. sewed. 1s. Simpkin.
Sussex Guide. Feap. 8vo. cloth. 2s. 6d. Longman.	Paris Guide. 12mo. sewed. 1s. Simpkin.
Hampshire Guide. Feap. 8vo. cloth. 2s. 6d. Longman.	Through Routes. 12mo. sewed. 1s. Simpkin.
Bowman (J. E.). Practical Chemistry. Fourth edition. Feap. 8vo. cloth. 6s. 6d. Churchill.	Italy Guide. 12mo. sewed. 2s. 6d. Simpkin.
British Animals. Square 16mo. sewed. 1s. 6d. Hamilton.	Procter (Adelaide). Legends and Lyrics. Vol. 2. 12mo. cloth. Second edition. 5s. Bell & Dalry.
Cayzer (T. S.). One Thousand Arithmetical Tests. 1s. 6d. Griffith & Farran.	Pictorial Geography on a Sheet. 2s. Tinted. 2s. 6d. Rollers, 5s. Griffith & Farran.
_____ Answers to ditto. 1s. 6d. Griffith & Farran.	Recollections of a Beloved Pastor. By One of his Flock. Square 16mo. cloth. Second edition. 3s. Houlston.
Costello (Dudley). Piedmont and Italy. Two Vols. 4to. Illustrated. £2. 2s. Virtue.	Russell's Tanning Process. Feap. Svo. cloth. 2s. J. W. Davies.
Dissolving Scenes. Royal 8vo. boards. 2s. Dean & Son.	Smith (George). History of Wesleyan Methodism. Vol. III. 10s. 6d. Longman.
Family and other Prayers. 4to. cloth. 6s. Hamilton.	Smythies (Mrs.). Alone in the World. Three vols. Post Svo. cloth. £1. 11s. 6d. Hurst & Blackett.
Fenwick (S.). The Mechanics of Construction. 8vo. cloth. 12s. Bell & Dalry.	Spedding and Ellis. Bacon's Philosophical Works. Five vols. Svo. cloth. £4. 6s. Longman.
Gloriously Beautiful. A Tale dedicated to the Lady G.—H. Small 4to. cloth. 2s. 6d. Houlston.	Spedding and Heath. Literary and Professional Works. Two vols. Cloth. £1. 16s. Longman.
Ginsburg (Christian D.). The Book of Ecclesiastes. 8vo. cloth. 18s. Longman.	Social Science. 8vo. cloth. 3s. 6d. Cassell & Co.
Hawker's Poor Man's Morning and Evening Portions. Post Svo. 3s. Collingridge.	Strickland (A.). Floral Sketches. New edition. Feap. cloth. 3s. Hamilton.
James (Rev. J. A.). Works. Vol. X. Christian Life. Vol. I. Crown 8vo. cloth. 7s. 6d. Hamilton.	Slack (H. J.). Marvels of Pond Life. 8vo. cloth. 5s. Groombridge.
Lankester (Dr.). On Food. Second Course. cloth. 1s. 6d. Hardwicke.	Swaine (Edward). Palestine Lost: Objections to the Doctrine of Israel's Future Restoration to their own Land. 18mo. cloth. 2s. 6d. Jackson.
_____ On Food. Complete. 3s. Hardwicke.	Taylor (A.). Climate of Pau. Post Svo. cloth. Third edition. 7s. Churchill.
Laurie's Interest Tables. 8vo. cloth. £1. 1s. Hall.	Whewell's Analogy of the Old and New Testament. Two vols. 4to. cloth. 15s. Bohn.
Lean (Rev. Lindsay). The History of Herodotus, with English Notes. Two vols. Post Svo. cloth. 8s. J. Weale.	Williams (Jane). Literary Women of England. Svo. 18s. Saunders & Otley.
Lewis's Law of Trusts and Trustees. Fourth edition. Royal 8vo. cloth. £1. 11s. 6d. Maxwell.	

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